SEPTEMBER 1957 Vol. LV, No. 6



# The CATHOLIC EDUCATIONAL eview

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IN THIS ISSUE

COLLEGE TEACHING
SPEECH IN HIGH SCHOOL
READING IN ELEMENTARY SCHOOL
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Vol. LV

September, 1957

No. 6

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Published monthly September through May by The Catholic Education Press, The Catholic University of America, Washington 17, D. C. Subscription price: yearly, \$5.00; single number, 60 cents. Indexed in The Catholic Periodical Index, The Education Index and The Guide to Catholic Literature. Entered as second class matter at the Post Office, Washington, D. C.

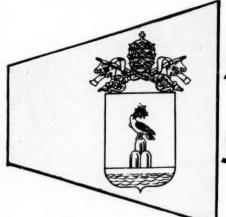
Business communications, including subscriptions and changes of address, should be addressed to The Catholic Educational Review, The Catholic University of America, Washington 17, D.C. Please address all manuscripts and editorial correspondence to the Editor in Chief, 302 Administration Building, The Catholic University of America, Washington 17, D.C.

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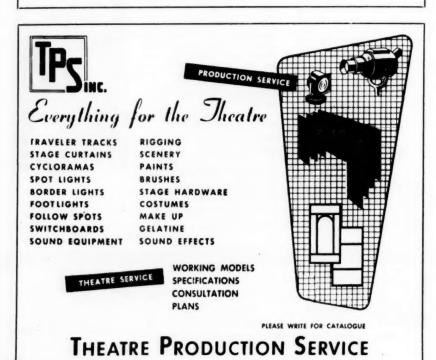
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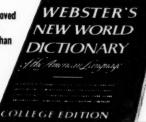
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### SCHOOL BELLS ARE RINGING AGAIN

### By Sister Mary Xavier, O.S.U.\*

FOR TEACHERS, SEPTEMBER is a thrilling month. It is like New Year's and it offers us the opportunity and stimulating chance to start all over again. Hope and energy, interest and enthusiasm are at their highest in both teachers and students in September. In addition, this first month of the new school year finds us full of a spirit of adventure and with ideals sublimer than at any other time of the year. Ideals are lofty things and their power is immense. But ideals are in the mind and there comes the time when idealism must translate itself into action. Ah! "there's the rub." G. K. Chesterton said, "There is only one really startling thing to be done with the ideal, and that is to do it." Life and time have a way of trying to rob us of our belief in ideals; the courageous soul refuses to yield them. There should be a way of preserving and materializing September's idealism. Perhaps we may do so this year.

### RENEWING FAITH IN TEACHING

At the beginning of the school year it is good for teachers to restate and renew in themselves the high purpose for which they started teaching—to work with boys and girls in order to help them discover part of the inexhaustible knowledge of God and the world in which they live; you want to influence the lives of thousands of youth and for their good. Keeping this aim in view—why you teach—is vital. This ideal holds a fascination for teachers dedicated to the instruction of youth and all the gold buried at Fort Knox would not lure them from their lives of dedicated service. You long to give your very best to them; this aspiration can be the means acting as a bridge to span the long months ahead, from September

<sup>\*</sup>Sister Mary Xavier, O.S.U., M.A., is principal of St. Mary's High School, Cumberland, Maryland.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup>G. K. Chesterton, What's Wrong with the World? (New York: Dodd, Mead and Co., 1910), p. 54.

until June, leading you on in order to accomplish all the good you wish to do.

### JUST PRIDE IN TEACHING

Do you recall the theme of the NEA Convention last year? It was, "Proud to Teach." This theme became the slogan of the delegates and it stimulated thousands of teachers to renewed faith in their vocation. It can likewise act as a catalyzer to our good will and sustain it through difficult times. President John Lester Buford told the four thousand NEA delegates:

Let's drive into oblivion the 'Justas'—I'm 'justa' social science teacher, "justa" elementary teacher. If in your opinion you are no more than a 'justa'—in whose opinion would you expect to be more?...I'm a teacher reaping rich rewards. I'm a teacher—PROUD TO TEACH!<sup>2</sup>

Much of a teacher's work, especially the religious teacher's, must be done in faith. As a matter of fact, no one does well in any field of endeavor except he who is impelled by faith in the value of what he does. We are so very close to the monotony of daily work that we fail to see our contribution to the lives of individuals and to recognize the importance of the Catholic educational system. But it is faith that will provide us with a wider vision, a longer perspective of our consecrated services. Remember, too, that the most important force at work in schools is the teacher and especially the influence that a religious teacher exerts. Recall that familiar yet apt quotation from Philip Brooks, "It does not take great men to do great things; it takes only consecrated men." What is more, we have every reason to be proud of our goals in the Catholic school which are so exalted and so definite. Thus with your twofold aim while teaching—preparing boys and girls for life in this world and the next-you are at the same time giving to your country a wellrounded and wonderful contribution-your Catholic student. But all this giving of yourself takes faith. Yet faith is the obligation not only of teachers but of all Christians. Cardinal Newman said, "With Christians, a poetical view of things is a duty—we are bid to color

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> John Lester Buford, Keynote Address at the NEA Convention, Portland, Oregon, July 1, 1956.

all things with hues of faith, to see a divine meaning in every event, and a superhuman tendency." 8

### PRESTIGE IN TEACHING

Thoughtful and great men have always recognized the dignity of teachers and the role they play in a nation. No less than Plato himself said this of teachers: "For this, I think, will be conceded to me, that only the brave and virtuous man be a teacher." In addition, consider what Edward Van Dyke, American poet and essayist, believed about teachers:

Ah! there you have the worst paid, and the best rewarded, of all the vocations. Dare not to enter it unless you love it. For the vast majority of men and women it has no promise of wealth or fame, but they, to whom it is dear for its own sake, are among the nobility of mankind. . . . No one is more worthy to be enrolled in a democratic aristocracy, "king of himself and servant of mankind."

Our own President Dwight Eisenhower said:

And most of us are familiar with what Pope Pius XI said in that great encyclical "Divini Illius Magistri":

Perfect schools are the result not so much of good methods as of good teachers . . . who possess the intellectual and moral qualifications required for their important office; who cherish a pure and holy love for the youth confided to them, because they love Jesus Christ and His Church . . . and who have sincerely at heart the true good of family and country.<sup>7</sup>

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> John Henry Newman, Essays Critical and Historical (London: Basil Montagu Pickering, 1871), p. 23.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>4</sup> John L. Spalding, Life and Education (Chicago: A. C. McClurg and Co., 1901), p. 90, quoting Plato.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>5</sup> Edward Van Dyke, The Ruling Passion; Tales of Nature and Human Nature (New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1910), p. 186.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>6</sup> President Eisenhower, "Special Message to Congress," January 12, 1956.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>7</sup> Pope Pius XI, The Christian Education of Youth, trans. National Catholic Welfare Conference (Washington, D. C.: The Conference, 1931), p. 30.

Can you call yourself "justa teacher" after considering great men's ideas about a teacher? You are important!

### GIVING IN TEACHING

Our profession, teaching, offers us the complete satisfaction of working for the good of others. It gives us the chance that greathearted persons desire-opportunities to go completely out of ourselves by giving ourselves to others. What is more, happiness awaits the person engaged in a task so big that it absorbs his ego. I wonder if any profession is quite so absorbing and offers more circumstances for giving one's self away than teaching does. Teachers would do well to read one of the recent best sellers Try Giving Yourself Away. In this refreshing little masterpiece, the author, David Dunn, recommends and outlines for us in a simple human plan a way of spending ourselves for others. Mr. Dunn predicts that "the returns-per-minute from giving are far greater than the rewards for getting."8 It is regrettable that the whole plan treats of virtue merely on a natural plane; nevertheless, the good deeds which the author so heartily recommends can easily be supernaturalized.

Even if teaching is a soul-satisfying career, yet it is not an easy career—perhaps harder than most. As one month after another of the school year passes, our courage, if we allow it, will weaken by the accumulation of small and great discouragements branching from apparent or real failures. Nathaniel Hawthorne has some singular advice to offer, "I find nothing so singular in life as this, that everything opposing appears to lose its substance the moment one grapples with it." Expect to encounter behavior and situation problems which will test your patience, but refuse to become disillusioned, bitter, or discouraged. Discouragement is a dangerous feeling for its influence is insidious. Beware of it! A courageous person expects some failures and misunderstandings but at the same time uses effort to throw off temptations to succumb to discouragement. This is an encouraging quotation from Harriet Beecher Stowe: "When you get into a tight place, and everything goes

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>8</sup>David Dunn, Try Giving Yourself Away (New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1956), p. 32.

<sup>9&</sup>quot;Nathaniel Hawthorne," The Consolidated Encyclopedia Library, ed. O. S. Marden (New York: Emerson Press, 1903), p. 4,355.

against you, till it seems as if you could not hold on a minute longer, never give up then, for that's just the place and time that the tide'll turn." <sup>10</sup> Do not allow your capacity for understanding and love of boys and girls to be quelled by a few problem children.

You start out in September with the best of will and yet there will come criticisms from students, parents, and other members of the faculty. But because you, the teacher, are a public servant you should expect, like a fish in a bowl, to have your actions watched. It was ever thus. Two thousand years ago Aristotle said, "There are doubts concerning this business of education, since all people do not agree in those things which they would have a child taught." 11

As a matter of fact, never in the history of the American people has more attention been given to the teacher and the school. Two years ago, two thousand lay citizens participated in the White House Conference on Education. In addition there is a constant flow of appraisals of teachers and schools by the citizenry through the media of radio, television, press, cartoons. Besides the thousands of articles dealing with the subject of education in professional teacher magazines there were five hundred articles on education published in our national lay magazines last year. These facts give evidence of the public's interest in education. As a result, do not expect your classroom to assume the privacy of an isolation ward or of an undiscovered island. It is well for us teachers to remember also that we have only delegated and secondary authority over our students. Pope Pius confirmed this fact when he said, "The teacher of youth, whether in public or private school, has no absolute rights of his own. All that he exercises has been given to him by others." 12

Maybe this motto which I saw in a coffee shop in Washington, D. C., can help us accept the annoyances concomitant with teaching with a minimum amount of discouragement, "Keep your eye on the doughnut, not on the hole." To be sure, the doughnut represents your ideals, successes; the hole, your failures and the criticisms you receive. Nevertheless, "Keep your eye on the doughnut!"

<sup>10 &</sup>quot;Harriet Beecher Stowe," ibid.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>11</sup> Aristotle, "On Education," The Politics of Aristotle, Bk. VIII, Sec. 3 (Cambridge: University Press, 1903), p. 107.

<sup>12</sup> Pope Pius XI, op. cit., p. 19.

### JOY IN TEACHING

Because your best work is done when you are optimistic and happy it is good for teachers to cultivate the spirit of cheerfulness along with a sense of humor. These desirable qualities will tide us over difficult situations and act as "shock absorbers" to the many aggravations which inevitably confront a teacher. Joy and cheerfulness will likewise create a healthy atmosphere in your classroom. Children thrive both mentally and physically under the influence of a teacher who has a sunny disposition. Cheerfulness holds much the same relation to life that salt does to food, giving it a flavor that nothing else can. It is a spiritual quality and our Lord encouraged us to pray for spiritual joy. "Ask and you shall receive and your joy shall be full." 13 Prayer and union with God through love can brighten our lives, for love has a way of making us happy even in the midst of weariness and trouble. A teacher should allow the effects of this spiritual joy to flow into her work and radiate itself into the souls of students filling them with happiness for having associated and worked with her.

"Oh, God," said Leonardo da Vinci, "You sell us everything for the price of an effort." Yes, for the price of an effort, he became the greatest artist in Italy and probably the greatest in the world and that in a day when Italy had many famous artists. But he had to have confidence, plus genius, plus industry in order to accomplish what he did; only to read his life will show the obstacles he overcame and the effort he expended. Speaking of perseverance in work, that great educator, Bishop Spalding, said:

Once we have learned the secret of labor, which never wearies and never loses heart, all the mysteries of the success of heroes and saints, of philosophers and poets, are made plain to us. Nothing but ceaseless effort is difficult, and nothing else achieves aught of permanent value.<sup>15</sup>

### COURAGE IN TEACHING

The first requisite for success in any state of life demands confidence in oneself coupled with the initiative and courage to do more

<sup>18</sup> John, 16:24.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>14</sup> Leonardo da Vinci, The Notebooks of Leonardo da Vinci, trans. E. Mac-Curdy (New York: Reynal and Hitchcock, 1935), p. 67.

<sup>15</sup> Spalding, op. cit., p. 28.

than the ordinary. You can do only what you think you can. Start doing. Remember "the first olive is the hardest to get out of the bottle." Once you set your heart on the goal of being a real religious educator you will build up your self-reliance which in turn will help you exert a good influence on your students. Ella Wheeler Wilcox nutshells this idea:

'Tis the set of the soul which decides its goal And not the calm or the strife. 16

We are all pensively aware of our shortcomings. This fresh start in September offers you the chance to start all over to be a new personality. Probably the children you will teach this year, your newly acquired family to live with until June do you part, do not know you. This fact can help you to grow into the new, congenial, lovable person you have always wanted to be. To do this does not imply making yourself over, but it does implicate that you work at your weaknesses. Your interest in the cause of Catholic education is evidenced in one way by efforts to improve yourself. Socrates recognized the importance of teachers' efforts to make themselves pleasing to students when he sent a boy back to his father and gave him this reason, "I can teach him nothing, he does not love me."

### PERSONALITY IN TEACHING

Presently the highest potential for success as recognized by important people is the possession of a pleasing personality. We meet hints for personality development in divers means of communication—magazines, books, TV, and the like. In fact there is so much material written about this subject, that it is sheer neglect to evade this important phase of successful living. And we have the ideal personality, Christ, for our pattern in striving for a supernaturalized personality. One of the most appropriate personality ideals at which a Christian teacher can aim is to say along with St. Paul and mean, "I live now, not I, but Christ liveth in me."

Teaching is definitely a profession that requires good human relationships. But a tremendous amount of success awaits teachers who recognize and work at this requirement. Evidences of last

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>16</sup> Ella Wheeler Wilcox, "One Ship Drives East," Prose and Poetry for Enjoyment (New York: L. W. Singer and Co., 1948), p. 293.

year's difficulties can give you a constructive basis on how to judge how much to expect of different personalities. Yet problems which need solving do arise in schools, and at times nothing but a strict and stiff adherence to discipline will solve the problem. The following passage, concerning discipline, is taken from the *Ursuline Method of Education:* 

Firmness of discipline is essential in an educator. In a school firmness is necessary as a protection against intruders from within and without.... The firmness of an educator exacts great energy and great patience, two manifestations of the virtue of fortitude. Education calls into action the collective forces of good against the powers of evil. 'Whoever does not give sweat, blood, and his life to this work will be vanquished,' says Dupanloup with his long experience. This firmness must be as kind and calm as it is indomitable. 'A head is early whitened and life is rapidly consumed by this effort.' 17

On the other hand, recognizing the other side of the case, the other viewpoint is necessary and it could help you understand David and his mother's difficulties; perhaps realizing that Mary sees things with the eye of a sixteen-year-old and you with the eyes of maturity may provide a better understanding not only between you and Mary but also between you and other students. Teachers concerned with educating girls and boys must face frankly the problems which confront them. Learn from last year's embarrassments how to reap this year's successes.

With a new start, you can become, too, what would mean so very much to your principal, to the other teachers on your faculty, to the whole school—a more co-operative person. Having the closed door attitude and letting the rest of the school get along the best that it can, even in emergencies, hardly shows a spirit of co-operation. This new school year can give you a chance to use your spare time for doing a little more than your share of duties, spending more of your spare time for cocurricular activities, for attending those PTA meetings which infringe on your spare time, for that friendly chat with pupils, parents, and other teachers. Co-operation is the esprit de corps of a group; co-operation furnishes a fine atmosphere in a

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>17</sup> Marie de Saint Jean Martin, O.S.U., Ursuline Method of Education (Rahway, N. J.: Quinn and Boden Co., Inc., 1946), p. 22.

group; co-operation, in addition gives moral unity and strength to a group making it productive of the common aims for which that group exists.

### STANDARDS IN TEACHING

It is good for us as teachers to examine our standards. Standards give direction to what we do or what we want done. In a way standards are related to ideals; however, standards are somewhat more tangible. In school they are measures of value—of the value we place on achievement. Students watch to see the level of our standards, whether we aim at high, medium or low standards of accomplishment in them. They will attempt to measure up to the standards we set up, once they recognize what we want of them. To be sure, our standards must be reasonable. We must never allow students to drift, that is to take the line of least resistance, to assume the "get by" attitude. On the contrary, make them stretch as high as their intellects will allow them. Most children like for us to challenge their highest potentialities and they appreciate it when we hold them to high standards of achievement in both behavior and scholastic accomplishments. Anticipate their grumbling at your expectations but, nevertheless, make them aim high. If you are a high-school teacher remember that it is part of the teen-age makeup to gasp at parents' and teachers' demands; paradoxically, though, they want us to require great things of them.

Another vital factor for a would-be successful teacher to remember is individual differences in boys and girls—native talent, health, social status. In other words your demands of a child must be consistent with his background when considered from every standpoint. To a great extent, likewise, the value that children's parents set upon things pertaining to school affect students' attitude toward study. Without the co-operation of parents, education cannot be so effective as we would like. An understanding teacher keeps these facets of learning in mind while teaching. There are so very many angles from which to view the difficulties that students, and in fact all human beings, have in coping with various situations in life.

### PLANNING IN TEACHING

"If I have a dollar and you have a dollar and we exchange them, we still have only one dollar each. But if I have an idea and you

have an idea and we exchange them we each have two ideas." This familiar platitude illustrates how teachers may grow professionally by sharing with each other ideas and methods of teaching. But the main thing about ideas is to carry them out; a person who carries out one idea is preferable to one who talks about a hundred of them. Everybody is looking for ideas and ways of utilizing them. Seize the ideas that come to you and then pass them on to others in your profession. In this way you will be an inspiration and in turn will receive inspiration when you discuss and share with your fellow teachers techniques which proved successful to you in teaching. You might also share your teaching experiences and devices with other teachers through the medium of educational journals. Theodore Roosevelt once expressed the opinion that every man owes some of his time to the upbuilding of the profession to which he belongs.

Are you creative? Another opportunity that a fresh start offers is that of learning to do things in a more interesting way. With a bit of creativeness you might possibly find a new method of teaching that subject which presently bores you or your pupils. Using the same stereotyped way of teaching for years makes teaching such a mechanical thing not only for you but also for your youngsters. Teaching can and should be a lively process. Students can pardon us almost anything but being boresome. And because this school year you are attempting to be a sparkling person, also make your classroom reflect your new personality by keeping it looking neat and bright.

Much of the success of any enterprise depends upon planning; teaching is no exception. There are long-range plans to make teaching effective, plans for a week, plans for a day. There are plans for yourself and plans for individual students. It is feasible to do a great deal of your outlining for the year now in September, since you know at this time what your assignment is for the year. Plan now on the appreciations, skills, and knowledge which you realize that your students of this year need to accomplish.

### ENTHUSIASM IN TEACHING

On you, the teacher of 1957, rests much of the responsibility for advancing the cause of education. Your attitude toward learning coupled with your zeal in teaching will of necessity become communicable to your students. One of the big steps toward creating

fine learning situations lies in your ability to awaken enthusiasm for learning. Enthusiasm is a potent factor in the accomplishment of anything that is of value. Our Lord looked for enthusiasm in his followers. Look what the enthusiasm of St. Paul and St. Francis Xavier accomplished! It is the enthusiast, never the halfhearted, the fearing, the critical, that accomplishes great things. If you can give yourself with enthusiasm to your teaching, then you have one of the secrets of success, one of the vitalizing powers which can lift teaching beyond mediocrity. Success in both teacher and student is less often due to ability than to enthusiasm. If you can awaken a thirst for learning, then your chief work is done. The thrill of joy which you feel in teaching will transmit itself to your pupils and in turn make them enthusiastic in learning. Our great President Abraham Lincoln's early enthusiasm for an education has become a model for teachers and students. It made him a liberator of millions. What a power there is in enthusiasm! As a religious teacher this enthusiasm for teaching is a manifestation of love—love of God and love of boys and girls showing itself through service in the development of their spiritual and intellectual life. "Enthusiasm utters itself in deeds more than words. It makes one capable of infinite patience and endurance and holds him true in the face of whatever difficulties-steadfast, though a world cry out against him." 18

Teachers are idealistic people, and their ideals are keener in September than in any other month. The problem is to keep faith in these ideals and cause them to materialize as the school year advances. Keeping faith in these ideals will strengthen the will to accomplish that which is a possibility now into a reality in June. Nurture your ideals by keeping them before you, knowing that your ideals and enthusiasm are powerful factors for the accomplishment of good.

Respect your vocation as a teacher highly and reverently; know the value and importance of your work. Be proud of your vocation as the most important job in the world—as indeed teaching is. Don't allow the hopes and ideals you are experiencing now to depart from you but cling to them with all the tenacity of your will. Retain that zeal, inspiration, and enthusiasm until the last bell rings in June.

<sup>18</sup> Spalding, op. cit., p. 49.

# SOME ASPECTS OF READING IN ELEMENTARY SCHOOL

### By Sister Mary Fridian, O.S.F.\*

DURING 1956 THE WRITER conducted a survey of reading achievement in the St. Boniface Parochial School of Lafayette, Indiana. The investigation was a repetition of a similar study made in the same school in 1940. The results of the survey show that the population of the school in 1956 read better and more than did the children of the same institution in 1940. One finding of the study merits careful consideration—that of the tremendous variability in reading on each grade level as shown in Table 1.

TABLE 1 Number of Reading Levels in Each Grade

Grade	Reading Levels in Years
I	3
II	5
III	7
IV	8
V	9
VI	9
VII	9

The figures of Table 1 are in harmony with those of many other studies concerning the variability in reading proficiency in many schools. They hold important implications for the administration of the school's reading program; they also point out (what many teachers still do not understand or do not care to understand) that the traditional graded elementary school is an academic non-entity.

### VARIATION IN READING, A LONG ESTABLISHED FACT

Wide variations in reading proficiency have always existed. A few decades ago, this fact did not come to light because of the lack

<sup>\*</sup>Sister Mary Fridian, O.S.F., Ph.D., is director of the Reading Clinic at St. Francis College, Lafayette, Indiana.

of reliable measuring instruments and the unwillingness of many schools to appraise their work. Teachers, however, were conscious of the differences in the reading achievement of their pupils, just as teachers are today. As a group, they provided little for the needs of children who differed widely in ability and achievement. In most schools, there was uniform mass instruction day after day. Gifted pupils wasted practically all their time and developed habits of inattenion and laziness. Slow-learning children who could not profit by the stereotyped instruction, often repeated given grades several times and finally dropped out of school.

Are conditions better today? In many schools—yes. Better prepared teachers realize that children do not progress by a series of grade hurdles. But such schools and such teachers are far too few. We still know schools where children are taught fourth-, fifth- or sixth-grade reading simply because they are in these grades. The injustice of such procedure stands out in bold relief in the case of many children coming to the college reading clinic for help.

### THE IMPORTANCE OF A SOUND READING PROGRAM

A sound and well-balanced reading program parallels the growth and development of children. Authorities on the teaching of reading recognize five stages of growth in the development of reading habits:

- 1. A period of reading readiness in kindergarten and in the early part of Grade I.
- 2. The initial period of reading instruction in Grade I.
- A period of rapid progress in basic attitudes, habits, and skills in Grades II through IV.
- A period of wide reading and refinement of skills in Grades V and VI.
- 5. Further development and refinement of attitudes, habits, skills, and tastes in junior and senior high school and college.

These developmental periods in a reading program should be well understood by the faculty of the elementary school. The articulation of skills from one period to another in the case of each child is an important criterion of the school's reading program. The teacher of a given grade level must accept children on their individual levels of achievement and develop them from thereon.

Not all children can be expected to master the reading program of a given grade; likewise, there will be many children who achieve one, two, three, four or more years in reading above their grade status. The age-old tradition of having each child master a reader per grade in order to be promoted is nonsense. Children just do not acquire reading proficiency according to a fixed school calendar.

In our contact with several hundred children in the college reading school we have come to realize that lack of articulation between levels of achievement in various reading skills is one of the major causes of reading problems. Slow learners become confused by the multiplication of difficulties, while fast learners waste their Godgiven talents and practice habits of idleness, daydreaming, and other undesirable behavior. We repeat, the teaching of reading skills must be sequential and carefully organized if the development of essential habits and skills is to be orderly and successful. Any given level of reading attainment is a foundation-strong or weak, for the level that follows. To avoid abrupt transitions from grade to grade, teachers will do well to study the instructional methods and materials of all reading levels and then select procedures and materials appropriate for use with their particular group. We recommend that the month of September be devoted to a review of reading skills studied in earlier grades; skills such as: phonetic analysis, structural analysis, syllabication, the use of context clues, reading for specific purposes, and so forth.

Another important criterion for the appraisal of a reading program is the extent to which pupils enjoy extensive reading of interesting books and other reading materials. The school library with its supply of proper reading materials is indeed a measuring rod of the quality of the school's reading program and of the understanding by teachers of the needs of growing boys and girls. Teachers should know that primary children enjoy stories about animals, home life, and fairy tales. Boys of the intermediate grades find delight in adventure and mystery stories. They also are avid readers of fictionalized history and biography; many of them become absorbed in mechanics, science, invention, and materials related to hobbies. Girls of the intermediate grades are interested in sentimental stories of home and school life. In the pre-adolescent years of eleven to fourteen, they develop a liking for romantic fiction.

Almost all children enjoy comics in newspapers and in comic-book form.

### ADAPT BOOKS TO READING LEVEL AND INTERESTS OF CHILDREN

Teachers should bear in mind that collateral reading materials must be suitable to the reading level of the child. If books and papers are too difficult, the child will lose interest in reading, make faulty approaches, and become confused. If these faulty techniques become habits and are left uncorrected, they will limit his reading capabilities and reading interests for life. Recreational and other independent reading should be at a level considerably below that of the child's study-reading level. This statement does not mean to imply that the modern reading program is an "easy" program. A modern developmental reading program is carefully planned so that important reading skills can be developed gradually in materials which increase steadily in difficulty.

### WHY CHILDREN DO NOT READ MORE BOOKS

During the past year, the writer inquired of 353 elementaryschool pupils why they did not read more. Here we present a summary of their written replies:

I would read more: if there were more interesting books in school - if there were a greater variety of books - if we had more free-reading periods - if the books were more frequently exchanged - if there were more easy books — if good books were listed on the bulletin board if the librarian would tell us something about interesting books - if we had a cozy library corner - if we had a book-week program - if I could choose my own books if I had more time - if my teacher would help me more if we had more comic books - if we talked about the books we read - if the stories were shorter - if my teacher liked me — if my dad did not get angry when I do not know my words - if we did not read the same story ten times or more — if we could have a small reading circle — if I did not belong to the gang - if I could take my books home at night - if I had glasses - if I did not have so many headaches - if we did get points for reading - if we did not have to tell about our books in front of the room if I were smart - if my teacher would not fly off the handle - if my dad and mother could read English - if I

were not afraid to read out loud - if we had more picture books — if I could sit by the window and read — if I had a little lamp in my bedroom — if the kids would bring their books to share with the class - if I did not have to baby-sit - if I did not have a paper route - if I could find a quiet place at home — if I did not have so much 4-H work if we would have little reading groups - if we had more mystery stories - if I could read when I wanted to - if we did not have so much homework in arithmetic - if it were more quiet in school - if I were permitted to read in bed - if I knew what to read - if my sister were not always better than me - if I could read faster - if we did not have to wait for the slow readers - if there were more horse and dog stories - if we had stories about the outer space and spacemen - if I did not spend so much time at TV - if I could sound out the hard words - if I did know more words — if I could leave the room after finishing my work and go to the library - if I did not have to practice piano - if my dad did come back to us - if there were more boat and snake stories — if we did not say the new words so many times, sometimes fifteen times - if I did not hate reading — if I liked to read — if I could stay up at nights — if I had my own library — if I had my own room. . . . My dad bought seventy-five books at a bargain and I don't like any of them.

### IMPLICATIONS OF CHILDREN'S REPLIES

Careful study of children's reasons for not reading more reveals several weaknesses in the school's reading program. First of all, there seems to be a great lack of library facilities. A great variety of books suitable to various reading levels and interest levels of children is wanting.

Second, the basic reading program of the school seems too narrow. There is indirect evidence of a lack of reading activities designed to develop personal growth and recreational appreciation.

Third, a number of children express their helplessness in selecting books for free-reading periods. While children should be permitted free choice in their reading, teachers must guide that choice so that it grows steadily better.

Fourth, the responses indicate that pupils enjoy sharing reading experiences; therefore, teachers should give all pupils opportunities to take an active part in each reading activity.

Fifth, some pupils of the upper grades voice the desire to have

the class divided into reading groups. They complain of waste of time and loss of interest because of "long waiting" for slow readers to finish their work. Effective and economical teaching of reading, not only in the primary and intermediate grades, but also in the upper and grammar grades, may be accomplished by dividing the class into groups. The teacher who conducts her class on the basis of small-group instruction will have opportunities to observe and study the reading difficulties experienced by individual children.

### RECOMMENDATIONS

A strong in-service training of principals and teachers should be initiated for the study and development of a sound reading program.

The school should establish a close relationship with the children's parents to enlighten them on problems of reading instruction and to solicit their co-operation in the organization of a school library.

The resources and the service of the city libraries should be explored for the purpose of arranging periodic supplies and frequent exchanges of books and other reading materials.

A continuous evaluation should be made of the school's reading program. This study should be based upon the observations of teachers, principal, supervisor, and parents and upon objective, scientific test data indicating the children's progress in reading.

A Catholic Press Association reported it was found through a survey made last spring of St. Louis Catholic high school and college students that 84 per cent of them read Catholic magazines regularly.

The School Sisters of Notre Dame, whose 12,000 members teach 236,000 students in the United States and Canada, held their third national educational conference in St. Louis last month.

Only a little over 2 per cent of the Asian world, excluding the Soviet Union's Asian possessions, is Catholic.

# THE EDUCATION OF GIRLS ACROSS THE WORLD

By Urban H. Fleege\*

GIRLS IN MANY COUNTRIES are treated as second-class human beings as far as opportunity for education is concerned. Of all the children in the world only half ever have an opportunity to set foot inside a school for formal education. Of children thus handicapped, the majority are girls. Historically and traditionally the education of women in many parts of the world has been regarded as of less importance than the education of men.

The writer can do little more than give a number of percentage figures indicating the comparative educational opportunities for boys and girls in the various countries—especially in the underdeveloped countries of the world. In this article we will not touch on the education of women in the United States, England, Germany, or, for that matter, in most of the other countries of Europe, since at present, compulsory education in most-of these countries provides girls the same educational opportunity as boys, at least on the elementary level.

The writer draws upon his personal experience in some of these countries, especially those in Southeast Asia, as well as upon the excellent documentary studies prepared by the United Nations and some of the specialized agencies such as UNESCO. In addition, the writer has had the advantage of having read manuscripts of several books currently under preparation by the United Nations in the general field of education.

### IN THIRTY-SEVEN COUNTRIES FEW SCHOOLS FOR GIRLS

School attendance of girls falls considerably below that of boys, especially in those parts of the world where general development of education is somewhat lagging. A recent survey by UNESCO shows that in 37 of 44 countries in which total attendance at elementary schools was less than half of the school-age population, the vast

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majority of pupils were boys; in only seven of these countries was the number of girls equal to that of the number of boys. Surprisingly enough, these seven countries were all in Latin America: Colombia, Ecuador, Honduras, Mexico, Dominican Republic, Venezuela and El Salvador.

In most regions where there is an insufficient number of schools, priority is usually given to schools for boys—since the privilege of education is rather rare and viewed with an eye on its economic value.

There is a direct relationship between compulsory education and the percentage of girls of school age actually in school; hence, where education is not compulsory, or is compulsory only in theory, the number of girls attending school is rather low.

The greatest difference between the preparation of boys and girls attending elementary schools is found in the countries and territories of Africa and Asia.

In the Arab countries the best record for girls in school is found in the states of Lebanon, Syria, and Jordan—where nearly three-fourths of school-age children are found in school.<sup>2</sup>

### COMPULSORY SCHOOL PERIOD LOW

In most of the countries in Southeast Asia, the Middle East, Latin America, and in certain African territories, elementary education lasts only five or six years; this is true even in the Philippines (six years), where American educational influence has been at work for the past fifty years. In some of these countries the course of compulsory elementary education is even shorter—only four years in length in some places.

In Egypt about half the children of school age are enrolled; in Iraq and Kuwait about 40 per cent. The lowest enrollments are found in Libya and Saudi Arabia. Current plans call for compulsory education in these countries within the next few years, more likely within the next twenty.

In most of these countries girls are withdrawn from elementary school with much greater frequency than are boys. In some countries, roughly 75 per cent of the girls enrolled in the first grade of elementary school leave without completing the year. Parents

<sup>1</sup> World Survey of Education (New York: UNESCO, 1955).

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Compulsory Education in the Arab States (New York: UNESCO, 1955).

look with less favor upon the education of their girls than of their boys for several reasons: (1) financial—the education of boys is likely to be more profitable; (2) the prevalence of traditional attitudes in some areas against permitting girls to appear in public. Going to school would involve appearance in public and possible exposure to bad influences. This attitude, of course, is more prevalent in the rural areas than in the towns. In urban areas, half of the pupils accounted for are girls. In the same country this proportion drops to 25 per cent or less in the rural areas.

### EDUCATIONAL OPPORTUNITIES IN URBAN AND RURAL AREAS

There exists a big difference between the educational opportunities in rural and urban areas, especially where education is less developed. For example, in Bolivia, where 75 per cent of the people are illiterate (40 per cent of Latin America is reportedly illiterate), the majority live in rural areas where there are no schools. In 1950, half a million Bolivian children of school age were not in school because of a shortage of schools, low population density, inadequate roads and transportation, and because of the tradition in rural areas of depending on the children for work. In Brazil, for the same year, the same was true for 36 per cent of the Brazilian school-age population.

In Costa Rica in 1950, while 1 out of every 6 town children completed the six-year cycle of classes, the same was true of less than 4 per cent of the children living in rural areas. In Ecuador, only the children of relatively advanced peasant families go to the rural schools; the rest never get to school. In El Salvador, in 1952-53, only 1 in 6 in the total rural children population received any education at all.

In India, Afghanistan, Egypt, Turkey, Pakistan, rural education lags so seriously behind urban education that it is practically non-existent.

Not only is there a difference in access to education in rural areas, but likewise in the quality of teaching, in the curriculum itself, as well as in the length of the educational program. If the system calls for six years in the urban areas, it may well be only two or three years in length in many rural areas; even in the Philippines where we find a relatively advanced educational system, we

find that about 20 per cent of the rural schools have only one or two grades, namely the first and possibly the second.

In short, the agricultural population (a vitally important element of any country) is placed in a position of inferiority, by way of comparison with the educational opportunities afforded town people. In some countries this is undoubtedly one of the causes of migration from the land, thus creating an urban proletariat with resulting serious social and political problems.

In some countries, where large segments of the population live a nomadic life, a special problem is presented. This is particularly true in the desert areas of the Near and Middle East, and in the ice-bound wastes of the Arctic. In Afghanistan, for instance, where 25 per cent of the population are nomads, some attempt to provide educational opportunities is made through mobile schools; but even this proves insufficient and ineffective, since the migratory moves of the tribesmen are unpredictable.

Iran and Pakistan have similar problems, but to a lesser degree. Saudi Arabia has a significant problem here with the Bedouin communities.

In general, there is an awakening around the world on the part of governments toward remedying the lack of balance in educational opportunities by building schools, training teachers, and by encouraging rural peoples to send their children to school. Much of the stimulation in this direction comes from UNESCO and from the United States International Cooperation Administration's educational program, particularly through educational exchange, the providing of technical assistance, training educational leaders in these countries, and through the setting up of pilot demonstration projects.

### COMPULSORY EDUCATION NON-EXISTENT OR RECENT

An education is not compulsory in Saudi Arabia. Here the parent is free to choose to have his children educated or not. The problem of women's education has not even been seriously considered here. Whatever education is provided for girls is provided privately in the home. The same is true of Yemen. A similar situation maintained until about ten years ago among the Moslems, where they had the option of keeping their girls out of school if they wished to

have them educated at home. However, at present, 6 per cent of the Moslem children attending primary schools are girls.

In Libya, elementary education was made compulsory for both sexes in 1951. Within two years after this, only 15 per cent of the primary school enrollment is accounted for by girls. In Jordan, where there are no coeducational schools, the percentage of girls in primary schools was 21 five years ago. In Kuwait and Bahrein, the percentage of girls in primary schools is 30 and 33 respectively, even though education has not been compulsory in these states.

In Egypt, compulsory education was introduced in 1923, but the principle has not been implemented, especially for girls, mainly because of a lack of schools; hence, today girls constitute only 35

per cent of the total enrollment.

In Syria, education has been compulsory since 1944, with about 71 per cent of the children of primary school age in school, 29

per cent of whom are girls.

Although primary education is not compulsory in Lebanon, about 70 per cent of school-age children are found in primary schools, with girls accounting for slightly more than half. This unusual proportion between boys and girls in Lebanon is perhaps accounted for by the fact that a necessary qualification for a future bride is possession of a primary school leaving certificate.

### OTHER ASIAN COUNTRIES

Nepal has, perhaps, the lowest percentage of girls enrolled in school — girls accounting for only 3 per cent of the primary school population. Education is not compulsory in Nepal, although UN-ESCO is now assisting this country in developing a school program. At present there are many communities in Nepal with no school. Where elementary schools are being established, many of the teachers have little more than a tenth-grade education.

In Afghanistan, where education has been compulsory in principle since 1941, girls make up only 6 per cent of the primary school

enrollment.

India passed a law in 1949 calling for compulsory education of all children up to the age of fourteen. This law is to be implemented within a period of ten years. This legislation has had a spotty implementation to date. Where it is in operation, 1 boy in 2 attends primary school, whereas the same is true of only 1 girl in 6. In

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1956, the estimated average enrollment of girls as a percentage of total enrollment was about 29 per cent; this varies from 3 to 87 per cent, depending on the area in India.

In Pakistan, where the idea of compulsory education is gradually being introduced, with the exception of the area around Karachi, girls are usually exempted for one reason or another; hence girls constitute roughly 10 per cent of the total school enrollment.

While compulsory education was introduced over twelve years ago in Iran, there are actually enough schools to accommodate only one-half of the school age population, with girls making up a little over a sixth of the total enrollment.

In the three states of what formerly constitued French Indo-China, namely in Cambodia, Vietnam, and Laos, there is a growing interest in the education of girls. In Laos and in Cambodia, education is compulsory for both sexes from six to thirteen years of age. Implementation of this law, however, is hampered by the shortage of qualified teachers, and teachers of high school sophomore standing are considered qualified in many of the schools in these underdeveloped areas. Consequently, UNESCO and the ICA programs are assisting these governments in meeting their educational problems. As a result of the emancipation of women in recent years, the number of girls attending school has risen considerably so that now they constitute about a fourth of the school population. In most cases, girls are admitted on the same footing as boys. And in Laos there are no separate schools for girls and boys. The boys, however, do have an advantage in that the Buddhist monks conduct pagoda schools.

In the Malayan Federation, education has become compulsory only since 1952, for both sexes. Nevertheless, the enrollment of girls in primary schools is above 33 per cent of their number.

### EDUCATION IN NON-SELF-GOVERNING TERRITORIES

In the non-self-governing territories, according to the UN special study on educational conditions in these areas, the disparity between education for girls and boys is greatest, considering the indigenous population, in the African territories, with the exception of Basutoland, Swaziland and Bechuanaland.3 In these areas the girls leave school after two or three years in much higher numbers than do

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>8</sup> UN Publication No. S T/ Tri/Ser. A/8/Add. 1, 1953, chap. v.

boys; in one area where only 20 per cent of the boys leave after two or three years, 43 per cent of the girls leave. In these areas the tribal structure, native customs and practices such as initiation rites and early marriages impede the development of education for girls. In many cases, there is great fear of the disastrous effect of social life on the morality of the girls. In rural areas, there is a prevailing prejudice against girls' education on the ground that educated women are unwilling to work. In some areas (in Africa south of the Sahara)—where economy is based on family labor, women supplying the greater part—the education of boys is looked upon with more favor than that of girls. Then, too, the fact that education is not free in several territories is a further impediment.

The question of coeducation constitutes a problem in African non-self-governing territories, where boys receive favored treatment in schools; for example, boys have priority as regards books, school supplies, use of desks, attention of the teacher, and so forth. In 1952, the enrollment of girls in primary school for the African population ranged from 15 to 33 per cent among the various territories. In Kenya, where primary education is compulsory and free for children of both sexes, African children and Indian boys are not included in the program. In Italian Somaliland, girls account for only 12 per cent of the primary school enrollment. In French Somaliland and British Somaliland, girls account for only 5 per cent of the pupils. In the Kameroons under British administration, depending upon the area, girls account for anywhere from 3 to 25 per cent of the total enrollment. In Togoland, under French administration, the proportion of girls in primary schools is as high as 22 per cent.

In general, the education of girls falls far behind the education of boys in most of the non-self-governing territories, especially in Africa. South of the Sahara, girls constitute 24 per cent of the total African primary school enrollment; on the secondary level girls account for but 13 per cent of the total African enrollment. There is a hopeful trend, however, throughout this area, since there is a growing appreciation of the education of women.

### GIRLS IN SECONDARY SCHOOLS

Thus far we have been looking at the representation of girls in primary schools. As might be expected, girls account for a con-

siderably lower proportion of the secondary school population in most of these countries. In most countries, large numbers of children of both sexes discontinue their studies at the end of the primary level, if not before. In Europe and North America, boys and girls in secondary schools are about equal, with the exception of a few countries. The disparity between girls and boys enrolled in secondary schools is greatest in Africa and Asia, with Latin America not far behind. Social and economic factors play significant hindering roles in these countries: child marriages, social and religious prejudice and the preference given to the education of boys when economics are involved. The fact that opportunities for remunerative employment are lacking for girls in these countries is also a significant deterrent. Lack of acceptance of coeducation at the secondary level is likewise a factor. In Nepal, only 3 per cent of the high school pupils are girls; in Turkey, 25 per cent; in Haiti, where coeducation exists in secondary schools, girls account for 22 per cent of the high school population.

### EFFECT OF COEDUCATION

Among countries where boys and girls are segregated at the secondary level, the general situation is that the country builds schools for boys rather than for girls. In Iraq, for example, girls account for only one-fifth of the high school population; in Jordan and Egypt, one-sixth; in Ethiopia and Pakistan, less than one-twelfth; in India, about one-sixth.

Where coeducational schools are accepted, although separate schools are the general rule, girls tend to be found in the secondary schools in greater proportionate numbers. This is the case in Turkey and Indonesia, where girls account for 26 per cent of the high school population; and in Syria, where they account for 36 per cent. In the African territories, some coeducational schools exist, but the programs are quite incomplete. The same is true of most separate schools; consequently the proportion of girls to boys is very low in these areas. In Uganda, for example, girls account for less than 2 per cent of the secondary school population. In British Somaliland, as late as 1954, there existed no intermediate schools for girls, since "no girls in the protectorate had as yet completed their elementary course."

### VOCATIONAL AND HIGHER EDUCATION

In the field of technical and vocational education, opportunities for women are partly lacking, both as regards the existence of schools for girls as well as with reference to the subjects taught in these schools. Prejudices of long standing constitute the basis for this unfavorable school situation. In many areas of these underdeveloped countries, the place of women is looked upon as strictly in the home. In other areas, however, the training of girls is limited to certain home crafts, where a living can be earned in that field close to home. In some countries, no girls are found in vocational or technical courses at any level. In others, there are only a handful.

In the field of higher education, the percentage of girls as compared with boys is considerably lower than that found on the secondary level. This is probably not the result of discrimination against girls, but rather because careers and professions for which the existing higher institutions prepare their students are not open to women, and the fact that fewer girls than boys complete their secondary education. Even in European countries, girls constitute a much smaller proportion of the college population than do boys: in Switzerland, 13 per cent; Belgium, 17 per cent; Denmark and Austria, 20 per cent; and the same percentage represents the situation in Norway and The Netherlands. In the United States, however, the percentage is much higher, women accounting for well over a third of the student population in higher educational institutions.

Most of us know how different the situation is in the countries of Africa and Asia. Of all of the students of higher education in Ethiopia, for example, only five (not 5 per cent) are women. In Egypt, women fare somewhat better; here the fairer sex accounts for 8 per cent of the higher education student body.

UNESCO recently concluded a contract with the International Federation of University Women for the preparation of a study on the access of women to higher education. UNESCO is to present a survey on this subject in 1958 to the Twelfth Session of the United Nations Commission on the Status of Women.

The International Federation of University Women intends to include in its report: (a) a study of the conditions of access for women to various types and levels of higher education; (b) factual and statistical information on the present position of women stu-

dents and professors in higher education institutions, as well as information on facilites offered to women by these institutions; (c) an analysis of factors—favorable and unfavorable—affecting the access of women to higher education. This report will have two principal elements: a fact-finding one and a sampling of opinions.

It is interesting to take a look at the enrollment in higher education, as compared to the illiteracy rates in a sample of countries around the world.

TABLE 1
ILLITERACY RATES AND ENROLLMENT IN HIGHER
EDUCATION COMPARED

Country	Illiteracy Rate	Enrollment in Higher Education *
Belgium	3%	262
United States	3%	1,783
France	4%	365
Italy	23%	328
Bolivia	80%	166
Egypt	80%	189
India	81%	111
Indonesia	92%	8

<sup>\*</sup>Enrollment in higher education in relation to the total population, based on the rate per 100,000 inhabitants; e.g. Belgium has 262 enrolled in higher educational institutions per 100,000 Belgian inhabitants.

The relationship between the above figures is apparent.

In general, underdeveloped countries provide relatively few educational opportunities to their inhabitants; this lack is especially felt on the secondary and higher education levels. Ethiopia, for example, with a population of seventeen million, had, until a couple of years ago, only 431 public schools enrolling only 71,236 pupils. In Haiti, 80 per cent of the children of peasant families never attend school, while in Nepal, 96 per cent of the children do not have the opportunity of a primary school education.

Some of these countries, however, send their best secondary education pupils to other countries for study. This is true in the case of Afghanistan. Some countries, too, provide a limited number of government-financed scholarships for their outstanding students,

enabling them to study in colleges abroad. For example, in 1952 Egypt had 524 students studying abroad at government expense, plus an additional 1,172 studying abroad under government supervision. Iran sends a hundred students a year abroad for study; Jordan, having no higher educational institution of its own, sends her best students abroad for study. Similarly, other countries such as Liberia, Iraq, and Costa Rica.

#### A BRIGHTER FUTURE

In keeping with a general awakening which is taking place around the world in underdeveloped countries, the educational systems in these countries likewise are stirring with movements promising a development of educational programs where none hitherto existed, as well as an extension and improvement of whatever programs have been developed to date.

Countries which have well-developed school systems are now beginning to share with less favored countries their educational know-how, teaching materials, and technical assistance. On the forefront in assisting these less-developed countries are UNESCO and the United States International Cooperation Administration. These agencies are in the process of blanketing key areas in these various countries with forward-looking educational projects, staffed by educators from the United States as well as other countries aiming not only to tell how, but to show how greater educational opportunity can be provided the citizens of these countries. In practically every case the extension of educational programs for girls is receiving the same attention and emphasis as is the extension of programs for boys.

The University of Notre Dame has established a fund of \$5-million, the income from which is to be used to increase faculty salaries, finance professors' further study, and support publication of their research.

John Carroll University has been chosen to make a survey of the public school system of Lodi, New Jersey.

# THE COLLEGE TEACHER

By Stephen P. Ryan\*

RECENT FIGURES RELEASED by the U. S. Office of Education reveal that the majority of American high school graduates now enter a college or university for further study. There were 1,318,700 graduates of secondary schools in 1956 and 714,966 first-time college freshmen—a percentage of 54.2. The percentage will, in all probability, rise, as will the total enrollments in our institutions of higher learning. Who will teach these collegians of the future? Will the supply of trained instructors meet the demand? What is being done to encourage young men and women now studying in our colleges to consider college teaching as a career?

The student who has considered the possibilities invariably has a few questions of his own: What are my opportunities? What does college teaching have to offer me? What preparation will be necessary? The questioner is usually a departmental major in the College of Arts and Sciences; occasionally he may be a "fugitive" from the School of Education: "fed up" with "methods" courses or simply anxious to escape from the perils (real or imaginary) of the "blackboard jungle" of the secondary school. In either case, the immediate impulse is to answer the second of his questions with a counter question: What do you have to offer college teaching? If he obviously does give evidence of the more basic desiderata, however: a first class intelligence, more than usual competence in his chosen field of study, a genuine love of learning and scholarship, a burning desire to teach, and a personality which will make its mark in the lecture hall; then, one may well pursue the matter further and attempt answers to questions involving opportunities, training, "rewards," and "punishments."

#### SALARIES AND OTHER COMPENSATIONS

Looming large in the mind of the prospective instructor is, naturally enough, the status of faculty salaries; and, make no mistake

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about it, love of learning and eagerness to teach pale into insignificance before the omnipresent dollar sign. Our young hopeful is willing to make certain sacrifices in order to enter the academic profession; but the life of the scholar-beggar holds no appeal in this twentieth-century United States, and why should it?

The National Education Association Research Bulletin (October, 1956), entitled "Salaries Paid and Salary Practices in Universities, Colleges and Junior Colleges, 1955-56," provides an excellent statistical picture of the present situation. The bulletin tells us, for example, that teachers with the rank of instructor (the lowest full-time rank) received in 1955-56 a median salary of \$4,087; assistant professors were paid a median wage of \$4,921; associate professors received \$5,731; and the median for full professors was \$7,076.

The NEA bulletin further indicates that faculty salaries vary considerably according to school classification. The highest salaries were paid in municipal universities, where the median salary (for all ranks) in 1955-56 was \$6,435. The medians for other classifications were: state universities, \$5,458; teachers' colleges, \$5,401; state colleges, \$4,992; non-public colleges with enrollments of more than 1,000 students, \$4,756; non-public colleges with enrollments between 500 and 1,000, \$4,411; and non-public colleges with enrollments below 500, \$4,081.

There are the facts, set forth in all the cold, impersonal ugliness of the statistical table. If the student winces, and reveals only too clearly that he never thought it was "quite that bad," one can hardly blame him; but one can also conclude that the academic world has suffered no great loss, for your "natural" college teacher is made of sterner stuff (a fact which has been made capital of, unfortunately, by college administrations). The candidate who beats so hasty a retreat from the groves of Academe to the marts of trade or the corporation laboratory would never last very long in the college or university classroom.

Are the statistics quoted above really frightening? Certainly college salaries have been and are too low; but one must admit that they have improved and will improve still further. There is every reason to believe, for example, that the figures for 1956-57 will show a small but significant increase over those quoted for the previous year. The major hope for salary betterment lies in the growing awareness of college administrators, few of whom are unaware that

a bad situation needs to be remedied if schools are to attract first rate teachers, and hold on to present faculties. Of great significance also is a corresponding public awareness of the college teacher's economic "squeeze"—an awareness reflected in the recent munificent grant from the Ford Foundation, a grant to be devoted entirely to the betterment of college faculty salaries.

The student who announces his intention to enter the field of college teaching may well be alert to the prevailing salary scale and, at the same time, willing to accept it because of certain compensations which he believes are associated with the "job." That there are such compensations must be admitted. One can point, for example, to the normal twelve-hour teaching load operative in most colleges; to the long summer vacations; to the comparative absence of disciplinary problems in the classroom; to the opportunities for association with scholars interested in your own field; to the superior library and research facilities; to the comparatively high social status of the college teacher when compared with that "enjoyed" by his secondary school confrere. This business of compensation, however, may well turn out to be studded with snares and pitfalls; and the advisor should not minimize the dangers nor gloss over the facts. The twelve-hour week tells nothing of the actual time put in on the "job"; the hours of preparation; the hours spent in the correction of papers and examinations; the hours spent in conferences with students, in faculty meetings, in departmental meetings, in "keeping up" with the new literature in your field; and the many hours spent in all sorts of extracurricular activities which may range from chaperoning dances to participation in college fund-raising drives. And it should be made quite clear that the long summer vacation too frequently implies a long vacation from pay checks.

#### PROLONGED PREPARATION

The training of college instructors involves further difficulties, and not all of them are directly associated with finances; but the would-be teacher must expect a considerable outlay of both time and money before he is adequately prepared for the assumption of his career. Few colleges will accept a young instructor without his M.A. degree; many schools demand the Ph.D. even for the initial appointment of a man beginning his teaching; and almost all limit promotions to the higher ranks of associate professor and full pro-

fessor to those who hold the doctorate. This raises an interesting point. Are the requirements for higher degrees wasteful of time and money, unrealistic, and unproductive of the results they ostensibly are geared to? Many, within and without the academic world, think all these charges are true.

The time element may well be considered here. Is there any particularly good reason for the present qualifying periods required for attaining advanced degrees? In the not too distant past it was possible to secure the M.A. degree after a single year of graduate study; two, possibly three, years more were sufficient for the attainment of the Ph.D. Many universities now demand two years' study for the M.A.; and four, five, six, even seven years are often expended in work for the doctorate.

If colleges and universities are seriously concerned about the shortage of trained instructors, and they certainly profess to be so concerned, are they not actually helping to kill the goose that laid the golden egg by an unwarranted prolongation of the period of preparation? Let us examine this a bit further.

#### ACADEMIC "RED SHIRTING"

In college athletics there exists a practice known as "red shirting": fundamentally dishonest and in violation of the spirit of amateur sport, the system is, unhappily, an accepted part of the program in some schools. Here is how it works. An athlete thought by his coaches to be not quite ready for varsity play is held out of action for a season and assigned to the "scrubs" or "red shirts." This saves a year of eligibility. The same system may be followed in respect to a player injured in pre-season practice; rather than have limited use of his services later in the season, the injured man is held out for the entire season without using up a year of eligibility. What it boils down to is that some athletes are forced to remain in school for five rather than the normal four years.

It is no secret that in certain universities, promising and talented graduate students are "red shirted" also. Such students are awarded graduate fellowships or teaching assistantships. Delighted that his considerable financial burden is to be lightened, a young scholar accepts the offered aid; is assigned a section or two of freshmen to teach; and is granted a stipend of, to quote a normal figure, \$900 per annum. It all sounds fine, but there is a real "catch" in it. The

time consumed in teaching, grading themes, and preparation for teaching obviously necessitates curtailment of the scholar's own graduate program. The number of courses he can carry is reduced; work on his thesis or dissertation is held up; he becomes in a very real sense the prisoner of his graduate department. The teaching assistantship may be renewed over a period of years; and the university is getting the services of a labor pool at rock-bottom prices. At the same time, fully qualified men are deprived of positions. It is a question of simple mathematics. Hire two student assistants, each of them teaching six hours weekly, for a yearly salary of \$900 per man, and you are getting the benefit of the equivalent service of one full-time instructor at an annual salary of \$1,800! And try and find an instructor for \$1,800. College salaries are low enough, as we have pointed out, but they are not that low. Add to all this the manifest injustice involved in the needless prolongation of the graduate student's course of study; and you have a situation which obviously needs revision.

Another aspect of graduate preparation for college teaching which lends itself to question is to be found in the fact that this preparation is slanted towards scholarly research rather than teaching. Few would deny the validity of the thinking which insists that a great university is more than a teaching institution—that it must be a center of productive scholarship and research as well. This is small consolation to the new faculty member doomed for years to the teaching of lower level classes where the teaching approach rather than the research approach will be of paramount importance. To this distress will be added in many schools the pressure to "publish"; where or what you publish is not terribly important, but there must be a plenitude of footnotes and it must be as dull as you can possibly make it—this in the name of scholarship. Teaching ability counts for little in the struggle up the academic ladder as that struggle is waged in far too many colleges.

#### STUDENTS AND SPECIALIZATION

The candidate for a teaching post on the college level must face other problems, once he actually reaches the campus as a member of the faculty, his period of graduate study and preparation behind him. One which cannot be ignored is the probable indifference of large numbers of his students who are not directly concerned with

the instructor's particular discipline. This is a phenomenon peculiar to the present-day American university and college where specialization has reached almost ludicrous proportions. A most probable victim will be the teacher in the field of the "humanities" faced with sections of students "sold" on the present-day demand for technological experts. It is pretty difficult to "sell" Keats and T. S. Eliot when they cannot be measured with a slide rule and there is no obvious "pay-off" involved. What does a young instructor in a course in "Literary Appreciation" do with a class made up of budding engineers or chemistry majors? Or conversely what does an instructor in mathematics or physics do with a class of wouldbe poets and novelists—all of whom find counting to ten on their fingers a laborious and difficult chore? In both cases, the answer is simple enough; the instructor does his best and prays for the light to descend on the young barbarians; and mathematics majors can learn to appreciate Graham Greene, and English majors can be taught to solve equations and even find some enjoyment in solving them. Interest in your students, sympathy, tolerance, and understanding work wonders; and there are human beings behind those faces which outwardly seem poised between apathy and hostility.

#### ACADEMIC FREEDOM

Sooner or later the college instructor, either directly or indirectly, will be faced with the basic question of academic freedom. If he learns soon enough that academic freedom does not mean academic license, he is off to a good start. What it does imply, basically, are a real right to advocate doctrines which may be unpopular, and a healthy tolerance of the right to dissent. The student contemplating a teaching career in a Catholic college may be relieved to discover that there is actually less restraint on academic freedom in its true sense in many Catholic schools than is to be found in many state colleges and universities. The situation in certain Southern state universities positively inhibits academic freedom in certain disciplines—sociology, to name but one, A sociologist in some Southern universities dare not, for example, teach a course in race relations and make full use of the contemporary scholarship which points directly towards the desirability of racial integration. In one Southern state, a state university teacher who advocates integration is

not only liable to the loss of his job but to criminal prosecution as well! And a recent report from another state college system (not in the South) tells of the instructor who assigned John Dos Passos The Big Money as required reading in a course on the American novel. The teacher in no way advocated the social thinking put forward in the novel; he rightly assigned it on the basis of its importance in illustrating the "leftist" fiction of the thirties. An order to remove the book from the list of required readings followed—an order from the department chairman. The only explanation offered was that the book in question was "Communistic"; but the explanation was accompanied by a suggestion that the instructor had a good "job" and he should stop "rocking the boat" if he wanted to keep it.

#### STARTLING SURPRISES

It does not take too long an apprenticeship for the college instructor to acquire a certain gift—the ability to separate his students into "sheep" and "goats"—the "haves" and the "have nots." And right here comes into being one of the great rewards of college teaching-of teaching in general probably. One can think of it as the "surprises." The first almost automatic separation into the classes noted above proves only partially valid: valid only for the "sheep." Once a "sheep" always a "sheep," but it is absolutely startling how many "goats" are metamorphosed and become "sheep." That human machine which is the college student has a unique property which distinguishes it from the generator and the dynamo-it improves with age. Good students, the "sheep," may become better "sheep"; and poor students, the "goats" may and often do become "sheep." Any college teacher can tell you of personal experiences which bear out this strange and delightful growth and transmutation; and the cumulative evidence is impressive indeed: the sullen, impassive young man who slouches in the back-row, and one day, out of a clear sky, amazes with a masterly analysis of a particularly difficult passage of poetry; the poorly trained lad who came into the classroom unable to distinguish between an English sentence and a jail sentence and by sheer hard work learns to master the intricacies of the language; the giggly gir! who brings you her promising short story for criticism; the lethargic, seemingly uninterested young man who comes to you in the corridor excited over his "discovery" of J. F. Powers; the basketball player who develops an intelligent interest in Evelyn Waugh. And the surprises continue after graduation: some "goats" only become "sheep" after they get away from you; but you like to take the credit. You recall the rather stupid looking chap who sat dumbly (in both senses) through your course in the Romantic Poets, received a "D" through a passing and afterward regretted moment of generosity, graduated, went into the service, and was assigned to an air-force base in England. Months later you received a postcard complete with picture of Newstead Abbey and a message which includes a quotation from "Don Juan" and the words, "I shall always remember with the greatest pleasure your inspiring course on the Romantics." And there are and will be others to make it all seem worth while. There are disappointments and failures, of course; some "goats" remain "goats" in spite of hell and high water; but what profession does not have its failures?

After all, there is really only one reason why college teachers remain college teachers, and it is a simple and adequate reason: they would be absolutely unhappy doing anything else. This defics analysis and needs none: any college instructor worthy of the name knows exactly what I mean. Maybe, Chaucer said it, of his Clerk of Oxenford, as well as it has ever been said, "gladly wolde he lerne and gladly teche."

Seven hundred of the 900 Sisters who teach in the 116 elementary and 55 high schools of the Archdiocese of Dubuque were enrolled in college and university summer schools this year.

The new president of St. Edward's University, Austin, Texas, Brother Raymond Fleck, C.S.C., is one of the youngest university heads in the country. He is just thirty.

More than two hundred Christian Brothers from all parts of the United States attended the Eighteenth Annual Convention of the Christian Brothers Education Association, held in Philadelphia in July.

# SPEECH PROGRAM IN DETROIT'S CATHOLIC HIGH SCHOOLS

By Rev. Vincent J. Horkan\*

IN DETROIT WE HAVE HAD to "face up" to a rather unpleasant situation. Many of our Catholic high school graduates have in the past been "condemned by every syllable they uttered," and were indeed guilty "of the cold-blooded murder of the English tongue." It became increasingly difficult to live with this situation especially when one reflected that these graduates had spent ten years in the formal study of English. There was also the disturbing realization that our graduates were very often being judged primarily on their ability to speak—an external method of estimating personality and character, perhaps, but nevertheless a very popular criterion that must be considered.

So we decided to do something about the speech education of all our high school students. During the past three years a systematic attempt has been made to integrate speech with the teaching of English. One obvious reason for this placement is that all our students must have these credits in English to graduate. Hence whether they will or no, they must participate in speech courses. Speech is not just another elective. A second reason for including it in the English program is that for most of our high school students 95 per cent of their use of the mother tongue will be oral. Hence speech deserves some attention in the English classroom. Finally we believe that the speech units that have been compiled for use in these classes are strongly correlated with literature and English composition. Therefore they justify their place in the English program.

#### TRAINING OF TEACHERS

There have been two important stages in this undertaking. First of all we have attempted to teach the English teachers how to teach

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speech through a program of in-service training. The first course for the teachers was provided during the year 1953-54 by Professor Lamont Okey, a speech and English teacher at the University of Michigan. Professor Okey conducted these classes on Saturday mornings during the regular school year in the Rackham Building which is almost in the mathematical center of this city. These courses could be taken for graduate or undergraduate credit as a part of the University of Michigan extension program. During the first and second semesters of that school year more than fifty of our high school English teachers regularly attended these classes. These university courses were closely related to the high school classes over which the teachers presided. Doctor Okey conscientiously provided material and exercises that could be used in their high school English periods during the week. Doctor Okey is not a Catholic but his relationship with our teaching sisters was indeed a pleasant one. A veteran of more than thirty years of teaching experience on every level he could make the statement at the end of that particular year that he had never received more personal satisfaction in teaching a class. I'm sure that the gentleman was sincere, that he was not indulging in the oratorical habit of exaggeration.

Another period of in-service training was then provided at the University of Detroit. These classes, continuing over three semesters during the years 1955 and 1956, were conducted by Father Thomas Maher, S.J., of the University of Detroit's Communication Arts Department. Again they were given on Saturday mornings during the regular school year and the sisters who attended had the opportunity of obtaining graduate or undergraduate credit. Father Maher, a former teacher of high school English himself, very judiciously related his lecture material to the teaching of eleventh-grade English. Very often he would reappraise his own suggestions by reviewing with the sisters in his class their teaching experiences.

#### TENTH-GRADE PROGRAM

As a result of Dr. Okey's and Father Maher's courses and the combined experience of these high school English teachers we now have two speech units in our high school English program. The first course which is given in the sophomore year requires that forty-eight classes be devoted to this subject. While there is an

emphasis on the mechanics of speech in this course the exercises are orientated to the teaching of literature. One assignment calls for a brief talk expressing a personal appreciation of a poem or prose passage in the literature text. Another assignment is an oral book review in which three or four members of the class participate in a panel. A special exercise is the "lecture recital" which requires that a theme be developed by citing appropriate passages from poetry and prose. Ordinarily this assignment is directed to the gifted students. These assignments are explained in detail in the speech unit itself. Here we can give the course only summary treatment but it should be apparent that this speech program is closely integrated with the teaching of literature and thus justifies its place in high school English. Teachers of English will readily admit that literary masterpieces (particularly lyric and dramatic poetry, orations) are fully appreciated only when read aloud. The intelligent reading of such passages by the students themselves surely promotes appreciation.

Regarding the speech values of this tenth-grade program, care is taken to see that the students are drilled in the mechanics of good speech. Such fundamentals as directness, eye contact, good posture, are systematically treated in these classes. No attempt is made to teach dramatic or interpretative reading to these neophytes. Doctor Okey takes this definition as his starting point, "Speech is enlarged conversation." This definition gives direction to the sophomore course in speech or "oral English."

#### ELEVENTH-GRADE PROGRAM

The next unit in the program is pre-eminently a course in formal discussion. A minimum of forty-two classes in eleventh-grade English should be devoted to this unit. Here the integration is more closely related to English grammar and composition rather than to literature. The several students who formally participate in these exercises are required to write out their treatment of particular aspects of the problem under discussion. They may use these notes during their leadership of the class discussion. In this eleventh-grade course there is emphasis on the precise and exact use of the English language. Very early in this unit a section is devoted to basic principles of parliamentary procedure. Thus the class is provided with the tools for orderly discussion which they can conduct

themselves under the leadership of a student chairman. The problems discussed may be in the field of literature, the social studies, or just current questions that interest teen-agers.

The teacher and students must keep in mind that these are exercises in discussion rather than debate. One of Father Maher's basic principles is this: "Discussion logically precedes debate." One of the serious limitations of the old-fashioned high school debate is precisely this: students are asked to take a definite stand on a question before they have fairly and objectively considered all sides of the problem. This is also a fallacy in our everyday thinking. We find ourselves "taking sides" before we have sufficiently considered all the issues that relate to the problem. And once having taken sides pride urges us to defend our position. This eleventh-grade program in orderly discussion also prepares our students to participate effectively in groups.

To summarize and contrast the aims of these courses: the sophomore course stresses the mechanics of good speaking and is correlated with the teaching of literature; the junior program in formal discussion stresses content and is predominantly related to composition. The tenth-grade exercises call for a degree of literary style and imaginative expression; the junior course emphasizes dialectic and the precise, logical use of English.

#### RESULTS OF PROGRAM

And how is this program succeeding? The author of this article has in the past two years visited some forty high schools in the Detroit area where these two courses in oral English are being systematically taught. He has observed the following results:

- There is a great deal of student interest in the program. Individual progress, particularly in the tenth grade is easily recognized and the students get a good amount of self-satisfaction from this progress.
- The teachers say that this program can generate an interest in reading. One of the immediate results of the assignments is that the students themselves become aware of their own lack of ideas and their inability to express them.
- 3. Both courses rely heavily on student activity. "You can't

audit a course in speech"—it is a practical art. During the eleventh grade many schools organize speech clubs, draw up constitutions (a good exercise in verbal precision), and in this framework of parliamentary procedure carry on their discussions.

In conclusion we might say that in our Detroit schools we are trying to provide an American solution to the classic riddle proposed by Professor Henry Higgins:

Why can't the English teach their children how to speak? This verbal class distinction by now should be antique.

And while our experiment has not been as entertaining, as spectacular (or as profitable), as the one he (the professor) has conducted with Eliza Doolittle on Broadway, nevertheless it continues to produce interesting results.

A new parish encompassing the campus of the University of Southern California has been erected by His Eminence James Francis Cardinal McIntyre. It will be administered from a new Newman center now under construction at the campus boundary. The pastor will teach a credit course in Catholic doctrine at the University.

The Forty-Third Annual Eastern College Librarians' Conference will be held this year at Columbia University, November 30.

Geo. A. Pflaum, Publisher, Inc., of Dayton, Ohio, recently released the 4TH Youth Market Survey, prepared by the advertising counsel of The Young Catholic Messenger. Intended for advertisers, principals and teachers will find it interesting. For instance, it tells how many pupils play tetherball.

To help set up a national children's crusade of prayer for priests, the Claretian Fathers of Dominguez Seminary, 18127 South Alameda Boulevard, Compton, California, are appealing for trading stamps. They have arranged to have these stamps converted into cash.

# THE CATHOLIC UNIVERSITY RESEARCH ABSTRACTS\*

Administrative and Instructional Provisions for Rapid and Slow Learners in Catholic Secondary Schools by Reverend Thomas J. Frain, Ph.D.

The purpose of this study was to determine the extent to which certain administrative and instructional practices providing for individual differences in intelligence are being used in Catholic secondary schools. Particular attention was paid to practices providing for rapid and slow learning students.

The data presented in this study are based upon information supplied by 328 schools scattered throughout 39 states and the District of Columbia.

The findings are: (1) In the Catholic secondary schools represented in this study the percentage of rapid learners exceeds the percentage of slow learners by 30.2 percentage points. (2) In general, private Catholic secondary schools are making greater administrative adaptations for both rapid and slow learners than are central and parochial Catholic secondary schools; central Catholic secondary schools are making more provisions for slow learners only. (3) The type of Catholic secondary school organization bears little or no influence on the specific instructional procedures used in the instruction of rapid and slow learners. (4) In the subject matter areas of religion, English, science, mathematics, social studies, and business education teachers in Catholic schools employ extensively a variety of instructional procedures calculated to produce effective instruction for rapid and slow learning students; in the subject matter areas the slow learner receives more individualized attention than does the rapid learner.

CATHOLIC COLLEGE STUDENT RETENTION IN THE UNITED STATES by Sister Alice Joseph Moore, O.P., Ph.D.

This study aims to investigate the various factors that contribute to the holding power of Catholic women's colleges in the United

<sup>\*</sup>Copies of these Ph.D. dissertations are on sale at The Catholic University of America Press, Washington 17, D. C.

States. In order to ascertain the interests, attitudes, and ambitions of college women, it seemed advisable to solicit reasons for retention and withdrawal from the students themselves.

Twenty-four hundred college girls co-operated in the survey. Of this group, 1,300 were sophomores and 1,100 were seniors. In order to substantiate further the validity and reliability of the data acquired, the writer interviewed or contacted by personal correspondence the deans of 40 men's colleges and 67 women's colleges.

The study reveals that the factors that contribute to the holding power of Catholic women's colleges are happy faculty-student relationships, opportunity for spiritual growth, and location of college. Students participating in the study maintained that they prefer to attend a college closer to home. It was found that over half of the college freshmen who discontinue in college have the mental ability to succeed but they lack the interest, motivation, or finances to remain. Lack of academic interest or ability as a reason for discontinuance was given by 47.8 per cent of the students, lack of finances was reported by 24.9 per cent of the group, and 16.3 per cent gave marriage as a reason for discontinuance of college.

THE HISTORY OF CATHOLIC EDUCATION IN THE DIOCESE OF ALBANY by Sister Mary Ancilla Leary, C.S.J., Ph.D.

This dissertation traces in chronological order the growth and development of Catholic education in the Diocese of Albany from the beginning to the present. All phases of Catholic education, both diocesan and private have been treated. The study centers about the missionary labors of the Jesuits, the zealous work of diocesan clergy and 43 religious communities of priests, brothers, and sisters, and the apostolic endeavors of Bishops McCloskey, Conroy, McNeirny, Burke, Cusack, Gibbons, and Scully.

A treatment of historical background of the schools reveals some of the obstacles Catholics have had to surmount in order to establish churches and set up schools. Financial difficulties and an inadequate supply of teachers prevented Catholic authorities from providing ideal educational opportunities. With an increase in the number of religious teachers, together with a limitation of the vast territorial extent of the original diocese by the formation of the Sees of Ogdensburg in 1872 and Syracuse in 1866, Catholic education in the Diocese of Albany began to advance steadily.

The results of this study show that there are 82 parochial elementary and 15 parochial high schools, 1 central high school, 2 private high schools for boys, and 2 private academies for girls. Approximately 37,500 pupils are registered in these schools. In addition there are 2 colleges, 1 major and 3 minor seminaries, 3 schools of nursing, 9 novitiates, 2 protectorates, 5 orphanages, and 26 full-time catechetical centers. These figures indicate the consistent effort and self-sacrifice made by bishops, diocesan clergy, religious communities of priests, brothers, and sisters, and the laity of the Diocese of Albany in behalf of Catholic education.

A PHILOSOPHICAL STUDY OF THE STATE'S FUNCTION IN EDUCATION by Reverend Thomas E. Dubay, S.M., Ph.D.

This dissertation is a politico-philosophical analysis of the state's role in education. It begins by laying a foundation in the political philosophy of the state by discussing the natural law, the social nature of man, the nature and root of the state, the limitations on state authority, and the principle of subsidiarity.

The state's function as educator is prefaced by a treatment of the individualistic and statistic theories of government's relationship to education. Then follows the Catholic position which itself is introduced by a summary explanation of the educational roles of Church and family. The state is shown to be an educator, a subsidiary educator, and finally a subsidiary delegated educator. Along with this demonstration are included two critiques, one of individualism, the other of statism. The principles discussed in this section are copiously illustrated by actual educational philosophies of modern states. The last half of the dissertation deals with the many concrete problems involved in the state's educational relationships with the primary agencies of education and with itself.

The study concludes that while the state is an educator neither by definition nor by nature, yet it does have a vital role to play in matters scientific, cultural, and instructional. As is true in the whole function of government, the state's role is a supplementary, subsidiary one. Its nobility lies in its co-operation with the primary agencies of education, not in its supplanting them. Corporate Support for Education: Its Bases and Principles by Reverend Thomas F. Devine, Ph.D.

The purpose of this dissertation is to investigate the bases and the principles of corporate support for education. It is concerned with determining the nature of the responsibility which has been assumed by corporation spokesmen in their public utterances about the financing of education in the United States.

To facilitate this investigation a statement of the financial condition of education was necessary. A review of the finances of publicly controlled and privately controlled institutions reveals that education cannot be adequately financed by the present sources of revenue without reverting to increased demands upon the Federal Government. The expected rise in enrollments serves to accentuate the necessary relationships governing the financial interdependence of publicly and privately controlled education from the elementary school to the university.

Corporate support for privately controlled education prevents the imposition of additional financial burdens on publicly controlled education. The basis for this corporate support is investigated by an analysis of the hearings and the debate on the Internal Revenue Act of 1935, the legal decisions on corporate donations to education, and the social and economic effects of the corporation. As a result of this analysis it is concluded that corporate support of education is not optional.

A study of a parallel phenomenon, philanthropic foundation support for education, gives evidence that the corporation should not attach conditions to its gifts to the extent that it violates the rights of educational institutions.

Diocesan superintendent of schools in the new Diocese of Rockville Gentre, New York, is Rev. Edward P. Mc-Carron, a former student in the Department of Education of The Catholic University of America.

# HIGHER EDUCATION NOTES

Father James A. Magner, procurator of The Catholic University of America and managing editor of *The Catholic Educational Review*, was named a domestic prelate with the title of Right Reverend Monsignor by His Holiness Pope Pius XII, it was disclosed last month by His Eminence Samuel Cardinal Stritch, Archbishop of Chicago. Monsignor Magner, a priest of the Archdiocese of Chicago, came to The Catholic University of America in 1940. He is a well-known lecturer and writer; his latest book, which is published by Bruce Publishing Company, is entitled *The Priest in the Modern World*.

Record enrollments were set in Catholic summer schools this year. The Catholic University of America had 3,500 students registered in 380 courses. Enrollments at other Catholic institutions reporting to us were: Fordham University, 2,903 students; Marquette University, 2,432; Dayton University, 1,263; Creighton University, 975, and St. Michael's College, Winooski Park, Vermont, 408. At Trinity College, Washington, D. C., 36 American history teachers from 30 high schools in 11 states attended the Summer School of American Studies, a school financed by the Coe Foundation. At The Catholic University of America, sisters outnumbered priests, brothers, and seminarians, 1,260 to 790; lay women exceeded lay men, 860 to 590. Largest departmental enrollment was education with 414 students registered in 46 courses.

Policies and practices in regional accreditation are summarized in a mimeographed statement prepared by William K. Selden, executive secretary of the National Commission on Accreditation, and released this summer by the Council for the Advancement of Small Colleges, 726 Jackson Place, N.W., Washington 6, D. C. College administrators and students of higher education will find this statement a handy source of information on questions about accreditation whose answers are not easily found. Also important in this regard is a summary of discussions at a workshop on accreditation, sponsored this summer by the National Commission, which is carried in the July issue of CASC's newsletter. It reads in part: "There is a difference of opinion about consultant services from accrediting

agencies. One school of thought holds to the view that consultant services tend too much in the direction of conformity and policing. The other side maintains that it is essential in order to promote the main purpose of accrediting, namely, the improvement of the institution. . . . It is always dangerous to quantify a qualitative matter. . . . Other educational associations might encourage diversity in order to counterbalance the conformity promoted by the accrediting agencies. . . . There is little correlation between amount of money, experience of teachers, class size and learning. There is a high correlation between I. Q., home background, and learning. . . . Evaluation of a product is more important than the process by which it was produced or the 'factory.' Competence of the individual is what counts."

Death knell for teachers colleges was sounded last month in the report of a study, made by Dr. Paul Woodring, professor of education at Western Washington College of Education, and sponsored by the Fund for the Advancement of Education. These institutions will disappear completely within the next ten or twenty years, according to Dr. Woodring, and in their place will be the liberal arts colleges into which the functions and purpose of the teachers colleges are gradually being absorbed. Only about a hundred teachers colleges remain now, and they are turning out only 20 per cent of the new teachers while private liberal arts colleges and universities prepare 32 per cent and the public liberal arts colleges and universities account for the other 48 per cent.

Much of the emphasis in teacher education projects sponsored by the Fund for the Advancement of Education in the last six years has been on teacher education within the liberal arts colleges. Many of the projects are guided by the hypothesis that liberal and professional education are best provided in separate periods of time with a year of professional training and experience following four years of undiluted liberal arts. It appears, according to Dr. Woodring, that the general trend is toward a broader education for all concerned, with the emphasis on professional knowledge as distinguished from professional skills. Though this indicates a decline in importance of education courses at the undergraduate level, it could enhance the importance of education at the graduate level, where the finishing touches in professional training may be sought by the new teachers.

More than 40,000 foreign students representing 136 countries flocked to the United States for study during the 1956-57 academic year, according to a detailed study on educational exchange, entitled Open Doors, released in July by the Institute of International Education. Almost a third (31 per cent) of the 40,666 foreign students were from the Far East, and more than a fifth (22.4 per cent) were from Latin-American countries. The single country that sent the largest representation was Canada (5,379), followed by China (3,055), and then Korea (2,307). Men outnumbered women 3 to 1 generally but the disparity was even greater in the Middle East and Far East countries. One startling exception was the Philippines where the women edged the men by 877 to 837, possibly indicating the greater Westernization that has taken place in the former U. S. possession.

Every state in the Union had foreign students enrolled in their colleges and universities, although more than two-thirds of the students were concentrated in the schools of ten states and the District of Columbia. Thirteen universities reported more than four hundred foreign students in attendance, seven being state supported and six privately endowed. Four universities—California, Columbia, Michigan, and New York—had more than a thousand foreign students.

Nearly half (45.2 per cent) of the foreign students were studying in the United States through private means, indicating that more and more individuals throughout the world are taking the initiative in pursuit of education abroad. Schooling for a large number (over 40 per cent) of the exchanges was still being made possible through aid from private organizations, educational institutions, and governments.

The IIE census reported that 9,887 Americans traveled overseas in the 1955-56 academic year to enroll in 387 institutions in 54 foreign countries. Almost 1,500 U. S. professors taught or carried out research projects abroad with 781 of them concentrated in European schools.

More than 1,100 foreign professors representing 61 nations were teaching in American colleges and universities during 1956-57 while almost 7,000 foreign doctors from 88 countries were training as interns or residents in American hospitals.

### SECONDARY EDUCATION NOTES

Latin IV was taken by only 8.7 per cent of the twelfth-grade students in Catholic high schools last year, while 67 per cent of the ninth-graders were taking Latin I, 55 per cent of the tenth-graders Latin II, and 19 per cent of the eleventh-graders Latin III. This and many other interesting facts about subject enrollments in Catholic high schools are reported by Rev. Louis C. Roberts in an M.A. thesis submitted to the Department of Education of The Catholic University of America this summer. The study will be available in microfilm form in November. It is based on data obtained from 276 schools which had enrollments of at least 300 students, a sample quite representative of the various types of Catholic high schools throughout the country.

Since so much criticism has been leveled at American high schools this year over schoolmen's alleged indifference to mathematics and science, Father Roberts' findings on these fields should be noted. In the Catholic high schools last year, 84.6 per cent of the ninthgraders took elementary algebra; 66.7 per cent of the tenth-graders took plane geometry; 38.4 per cent of the eleventh-graders took intermediate algebra; and of the twelfth-graders, 24.2 per cent took trigonometry and 17.7 per cent took solid geometry. When the total of offerings in the field of mathematics is considered, it is found that the per cents of each grade enrollment taking some kind of mathematics are: ninth grade, 96.4; tenth grade, 78.5; eleventh grade, 50.6; twelfth grade, 31.2.

In the field of science, Father Roberts found 44.2 per cent of the ninth-graders registered (36 per cent in biology and 8.2 per cent in biology), 56.2 per cent of the tenth-graders (54.3 per cent in biology, 1.8 per cent in general science, and 0.1 per cent in chemistry), 52.6 per cent of the eleventh-graders (25.1 per cent in chemistry, 16.4 per cent in physics, the rest in other sciences), and 48.9 per cent of the twelfth-graders (24.6 per cent in chemistry, 20.5 per cent in physics, and the rest in other sciences).

Related figures on public high school subject enrollments obtained from publications of the U. S. Office of Education are presented in Father Roberts' study. Because of the different ways such figures are gathered in different surveys, hardly any comparison can be made. In the August 5, 1957, issue of *Education Summary*, it is reported that a recent survey of 10 per cent of all junior and senior high schools by the U. S. Office of Education reveals the following statistics: two-thirds of all high school students take elementary algebra, a third intermediate algebra; two-fifths take plane geometry and 12 per cent solid geometry; and there are more than 2,250,000 of the 7,000,000 high school students who are enrolled in physics, chemistry, and biology.

Catholic school winners of National Merit scholarships this year come from a greater number of schools and states than did the 1956 winners though the per cent of scholarships won by Catholic school students is practically the same as last year. This year 58 (7 per cent) of the 826 scholarships awarded in the spring by the National Merit Scholarship Corporation went to students in 51 Catholic high schools in 26 states. Last year 35 of the 525 winners (approximately 7 per cent) announced in the spring of 1956 came from 32 Catholic high schools in 18 states. One school, Regis High School, New York City, had three winners this year. Repeating with double winners again this year were La Salle High School, Philadelphia, and St. Xavier High School, Louisville. Three other schools had two winners each this year. Merit scholarships are for any accredited college the winner chooses to go to; 45 of the 58 Catholic school winners this year elected to enter Catholic colleges. Complete information on the total number of National Merit scholarships awarded this year is not yet available. It is likely that there are more than 58 Catholic school winners.

Eight Catholic high school teachers, six brothers and two priests, studied science and mathematics this summer via fellowships provided by the General Electric Educational and Charitable Fund. In all, 300 high school teachers from 38 states participated in the fellowship program this year. They studied in six universities and colleges spread clear across the country. More than 1,900 secondary science and mathematics teachers have been awarded the fellowships since General Electric started the programs twelve years ago. The programs have cost more than a million dollars in that period.

Looking for a faculty meeting topic? There is a comprehensive

and practical treatment of a perennial staff problem, namely, "Grading in the Secondary School," in the May, 1957, issue of The Catholic University of America Affiliation Bulletin for Secondary Schools. Recent research on the preparation of secondary school teachers reveals that few of these teachers have had training in tests and measurements. A little discussion of the contents of the Affiliation Committee's May Bulletin will help in any school. Copies of the Bulletin may be had on request to the University's Committee on Affiliation.

Demands upon the time of secondary school teachers are greater in the United States than in the great majority of other countries, says Harl R. Douglass in an article entitled "Teaching Load Crisis in Secondary Schools," which is part of a symposium on "The Load of the Secondary School Teacher," carried in the May, 1957, issue of California Journal of Secondary Education. "In all other advanced countries, for example in England, Scotland, France, Germany, Austria, and indeed in many other countries," says Dr. Douglass, "the number of classes met weekly by secondary school teachers is from fifteen to twenty." Developments which have resulted in demands upon the time of teachers. Douglass says, are: (1) expansion of the program of co-curricular activities; (2) increased participation of teachers in counseling; (3) longer class periods; (4) increased teacher participation in educational planning; (5) increased necessity for general reading; (6) increased attention to the individual learning; (7) increased necessity for participation in community relations activities; (8) trend toward democratic participation in administration; and (9) increased emotional and physical strain.

Call to the sacrifice and austerity rather than to the joys of religious life might impress today's youth more favorably, said Bishop John J. Wright of Worcester, Massachusetts, addressing the seventh annual Institute on Religious and Sacerdotal Vocations, held at Fordham University in July. Another idea advanced by Bishop Wright was the need for more Latin and Greek in our schools.

#### ELEMENTARY EDUCATION NOTES

"How would you feel about teaching different kinds of exceptional children?" was one of the questions asked of university students in a research study by Margit I. Badt of the Psychology Department of the Lincoln State School and Colony, Lincoln, Illinois. Badt was interested in ascertaining attitudes of non-exceptional individuals to exceptional individuals with whom they may have come in contact. A total of 210 students of whom 144 were majoring in education and 66 in curricula other than education participated in the survey.

It was thought that a student who chose to enter the field of education would be more understanding and accepting concerning individual differences than would, for example, a student who entered the field of engineering. This conjecture was only partly supported by the finding. There were some differences between the two groups of respondents, but acceptance-rejection cut across these groupings. The education students were just as unwilling to teach special classes as the other respondents were. They showed less acceptance of crippled children than did other participants. While the non-education students were openly hostile toward mentally handicapped and socio-emotionally maladjusted children, the education students also harbored distinctly unfavorable stereotypes and wishes for the segregation of these children.

Badt notes that because the population employed in this study may not represent the population at large, the findings must be interpreted merely as hints on possible attitudes toward exceptional individuals. It does appear, however, that there continues to be a great need for the cultivation of more helpful social attitudes toward individuals with different degrees of intellectual and physical abilities and with behavioral characteristics which deviate from the normal.

Italian-English school administrator praises Faith and Freedom Readers for the practicality of their vocabulary and for their effectiveness in inculcating Christian social principles. The Villa Nazareth, a school in Vatican City founded by Pope Pius XII for the education of underprivileged but potentially good pupils, is

achieving excellent results in its Italian-English teaching of reading, reports Sister Mary Omer, S.C., principal of the school and formerly of Mount Saint Joseph, Ohio, in a letter to Very Reverend Thomas Owen Martin, director of the Commission on American Citizenship.

The children at the Villa begin to study the English language at the end of their first year in school. At that time, they are introduced to the pre-primers and then continue through the first- and second-grade books of the series. By the time they enter the third grade, the pupils are ready to master the contents of the third-grade book. From then on, each class reads the Faith and Freedom Readers prescribed for the respective grade level. Sister Omer believes that the readers constitute not only an effective tool for the teaching of English but that they will do much toward contributing to a better understanding of the American way of life.

Popular music is overwhelmingly preferred at all grade levels and by all groups regardless of type of schools, sex, or socio-economic status. This fact, plus several other revealing ones, is the outcome of a study conducted by Vincent R. Rogers of Syracuse University with 635 pupils in Grades Four, Seven, Nine, and Twelve from six different school systems. The investigation discloses a sharp decrease in children's preferences for classical music as they advance from Grade Four to Twelve. By the twelfth-grade level, their preferences for popular music were so strong that critical ratios well beyond the .001 level of significance were found.

Physical maturity seems to be a factor, though an indirect one, in influencing musical preferences. It is common knowledge that girls generally mature sexually before boys. This earlier concern for the opposite sex apparently influences the junior high school girls' musical choices, not because girls show any innate musical ability (or lack of it), but because the popular music heard by them takes on an entirely new social meaning. Modern society, with its advanced means of communication, has seemingly done away with any lasting differences which might have existed between the musical preferences of rural and suburban school children, at least as far as the population studied by Rogers is concerned.

In order to counteract the rather one-sided influence of presentday mass media of communication, Rogers recommends that music programs in elementary and high schools be revamped so that children may be exposed to all kinds of music at the earliest possible time. He also advises educators to attempt to convey to parents the idea that it would be wishful thinking to expect a child to become an avid lover of classical music in a home barren of that particular form of music.

Tuning in for lessons is a daily event for pupils at Saint Scholastic Academy, Covington, Louisiana. In an attempt to avoid the short-comings of mass education, Sister Mary Theresa Brentano, principal of the school, has designed an electronic classroom in which the teacher's desk and the pupil's desks are wired for sound. The teacher, operating a console, can talk to any child by pulling a lever or pressing a button. Through four tape recording players pass four different lessons. Each child, equipped with ear phones, tunes in on the lesson geared to his level. In this way, four small classes are conducted simultaneously within one classroom.

Officials of the school maintain that pupils being educated under this new program have completed two or more years' work in one. A six-week session, sponsored by the Fund for the Advancement of Education, was launched last June for the purpose of allowing educators to study the methods followed at the Academy.

School experience for the mentally ill child is considered an important part in a treatment and recovery program, states Norma Haan of the Public School System, Berkeley, California. Haan points out that the job of childhood is learning, formally and informally, from parents, teachers, and peers. Children who are mentally ill have been unable, for one reason or another, to utilize effectively the earlier informal education given them by their parents or have found it necessary to utilize it in an atypical way. As a result, the imparting of society's teachings in the classroom by peers and teachers becomes all the more vital for them. In her work with disturbed children, she observed that informal learnings which result from peer-peer interaction and teacher-pupil interaction aid these children to normalize themselves.

However, the role of the school in rehabilitating the mentally sick child is not confined to the area of socialization. All humans find inherent gratification and reassurance in being able to master the facts, reading materials, and arithmetical knowledge suitable for one's age group. Hence, it is a question whether complete, or even partial, recovery could be achieved without the accompaniment of school learning. Haan maintains that the fact of not learning is, in a sense, a primary difficulty in the life of the type of child with whom she works. "He [the child] is in some ways a thing unblossomed, and whatever gains he can make in formal learning at school will aid the blossoming and normalizing process," she concludes.

Provisions for education below the conventional elementary grades are now authorized by legislation in virtually all States, the U. S. Office of Education reports. In some States, the legislation is permissive; that is, the localities may provide certain services if they need or require them. In others, the legislation is mandatory in that the locality is required to provide services under certain conditions such as petition from a specified number of parents. Forty-six States have enactments providing for kindergartens. In 40 the enactments are permissive; in 6, they are mandatory. Seventeen of these States also provide for nursery schools, all by permissive legislation.

In general, States likewise have enacted legislation calling for higher academic standards for certification to teach at the below-the-elementary-school level. Thirteen States issue a special certificate for kindergarten teachers; 4 States require a special certificate covering a combination of nursery school and kindergarten subject matter; 8 certify teachers to teach a combination of subject matter including nursery school, kindergarten, and early primary-grade subjects; 7 issue a general certificate with specialization in early primary education, and 13 require only a general elementary certificate for teaching in nursery school and kindergarten.

States also authorize age limits for nursery school and kindergarten education. These range from 2 to 9 years and include many different combinations.

# NEWS FROM THE FIELD

For the thirteenth consecutive year, the Nation's total school and college enrollment will increase in the school year 1957-58, reaching a new all-time peak of approximately 43,135,000, according to estimates released last month by Lawrence G. Derthick, U. S. Commissioner of Education. Enrollment will be about 1,769,000 higher than the previous record enrollment of 41,366,000 last school year. One of every four persons in the United States will attend school or college. Public and private school enrollment in kindergarten through grade VIII is expected to total about 30,670,000, nearly a million over last year's elementary school enrollment of 29,711,000. The Office of Education estimates that there will be 4,466,000 pupils in nonpublic elementary schools as against 4,267,000 last year. Kenedy's Official Catholic Directory reported 3,631,081 pupils in Catholic parochial and private elementary schools in 1956-57. High school (grades IX through XII) enrollment for 1957-58, according to the Office of Education release, is expected to be 8,424,000 (including 942,000 in private and parochial schools), a gain of 604,000 over last year's 7,820,000. For every 100 persons aged 14-17 years, 83 will be enrolled in high school. Ten years ago 74 in 100 were enrolled. According to Kenedy's Directory, in 1956-57 there were 722,763 pupils in Catholic diocesan, parochial and private high schools. Colleges and universities will enroll about 206,000 more students during the coming academic year than they did in 1956-57-3,450,000 this year compared with 3,244,000 last year. For 1956-57, Kenedy's Directory reported 259,277 students in Catholic colleges and universities, and an additional 36,468 in seminaries.

Because of increased enrollments in public and nonpublic elementary and secondary schools, about 55,000 more teachers (calculated at 30 pupils per teacher for grades K-VIII and 25 per teacher for grades IX-XII) will be needed in 1957-58 than last year, Dr. Derthick said. There will be a shortage of about 135,000 qualified teachers, despite the fact that 81,400 men and women will enter the teaching profession for the first time. The shortage last year was about 120,700. The continuing shortage will result as in previous

years in larger classes and the hiring of teachers who do not meet minimum certification standards. About 89,400 such teachers were employed in 1956-57.

The cost of education in public elementary and secondary schools last year, including capital outlay, was \$400 per pupil. The total for the country was about \$12 billion. Fifty-eight per cent of the income (excluding receipts from loans and bond issues) for public elementary and secondary schools was obtained from local property taxes. State taxes, sales, and other business activity provided 38 per cent, and the Federal Government, 4 per cent.

Reflecting steady growth in educational television, non-commercial ETV stations are broadcasting an average of 31 hours per week as compared with 25 hours one year ago, according to a research report issued in June by Educational Television and Radio Center, Ann Arbor, Michigan. During a one-week period (April 1-7, 1957), 21 stations broadcast 645 hours of programs. In a similar period last year 19 stations broadcast 468 hours. Variety of programming is emphasized in the report, which indicates that the fare ranges from credit courses to programs in music and dance, literature and philosophy, science and industry, and to more practical subjects like crafts and hobbies, homemaking, and public health and safety. Programs aimed at school viewing went up 59 per cent over last year, while home oriented programs increased by 42 per cent.

"An interesting informative lesson under our pioneer TV project has the same pertinent characteristics as it had under the traditional plan," concludes a Washington County, Maryland, teacher who prepared an evaluative report for Educational Television and Radio Center on the success of closed-circuit television in the county's schools. The report contains several interesting observations on TV instruction. (1) The interest span on the part of the average student is thirty minutes and any TV instruction which goes beyond that time limit is lost. (2) The television screen gives the teacher direct control of the attention of the pupil. It provides an effective fixation point for group instruction. (3) Visuals help explain the ideas of lessons; use of three dimensional visuals to illustrate such concepts as mercantilism, land systems, and the growth of tariffs have had excellent results. (4) The television camera can greatly magnify a map, picture, graph, chart, or any

small part of an area to be shown. In this way, every seat in the classroom becomes a front row seat. Moreover, experienced classroom teachers do not suffer frustration in accepting a co-operative partnership role with the television teacher rather than a dominant one within the classroom.

Marquette University is using closed-circuit television as a teacher aid in its School of Dentistry this year. Extensive use of television is being made at the University of Detroit.

A \$50,000 scholarship program was established this summer by the Ohio Knights of Columbus to help provide lay teachers for the state's expanding parochial school systems. Scholarships will be available in 1958 to young men and women willing to spend two years as teachers in parochial schools in Ohio's six dioceses. The scholarships will provide for half the teachers' college education. They should provide some aid in helping Ohio Catholic schools meet the new standards set by the State Board of Education that by 1960 all elementary and secondary schools, both public and nonpublic, be chartered and that all teachers in these schools be certified. Catholic school authorities in Ohio have this situation well in hand, due principally to the research done by Rev. Dr. James W. Malone, superintendent of the Diocese of Youngstown, and Rev. Richard McHale, assistant superintendent of the Diocese of Cleveland, at the Catholic University of America.

Lay teachers completely staffed five parochial schools in the Archdiocese of New Orleans last year. Of the 2,108 teachers in the diocesan school system, 785 or 37 per cent were lay persons. One school had twenty-four lay teachers and a lay principal. In another school white and colored lay teachers taught under the direction of a colored lay principal.

Connecticut became the nineteenth state to permit local public school districts to transport private school pupils at public expense when in June its controversial school bus bill was passed. Though a provision for free medical service for pupils in private schools was stricken from the bill, thirty-six school districts have been providing such service for some time.

# **BOOK REVIEWS**

Society and Education by Robert J. Havighurst and Bernice L. Neugarten. Boston: Allyn and Bacon, 1957. Pp. xv + 465. \$5.75.

Society and Education was a pleasant surprise. The title alerts the reader for another exemplar of John Dewey's School and Society pattern. Instead, it turned out to be a sober and scholarly application of some facts and ideas of sociology and social anthropology to the field of education. Both of its authors serve on the faculty of the University of Chicago and are members of its Committee on Human Development.

There are four parts, the first of which deals with introductory material—the general structure of American society and the dynamics of social development of children. The reviewer felt that the sketch of American social structure was especially clear and provocative. Part II considers the major social influences in the child's life—family, peers (horrible word!), institutions. In Part III the social role of the school is treated; Part IV is concerned with the teacher, as central figure in the interaction of child, school, and society. Tables and case histories are abundant and there is an up-to-date bibliography.

The volume is probably suitable for use in Catholic institutions if its limitation of viewpoint is pointed out to students. For example, only a writer whose concerns are confined to the socio-economic would be likely to declare that ". . . middle-class Protestants and Catholics are more alike than lower-class and middle-class Protestants." (p. 9) Catholics will be surprised to learn that "the type of religious service . . . will vary a great deal within any of these denominations, depending on the social-class composition of the particular church." (p. 132) It is also unexpected to learn that the Catholic Church maintains its own schools primarily or exclusively to govern "the over-all socialization of the children." (p. 132)

Most sociology books contain many value judgments plus the statement that they contain none. This one contains the assertion, "... we have ... felt it necessary to express our own values in

certain areas . . ." (p. vi), but few such expressions are made. There is, however, a pervasive tendency to view social balance (between integration and pluralism) as the absolute good of man. Item: "Every person is educated in, by, and for a particular society." (p. 261, italics mine) The treatment of ethnocentrism (pp. 309-310) leaves the impression that we can only avoid this evil by the greater one of assuming all beliefs and practices to have equal merit.

Given due allowance for its limited frame of reference and its implied value system, this book could be of much use to students of the sociology of education.

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THE INDIAN HERITAGE by Humayun Kabir. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1956. Pp. x + 170. \$2.75.

Material for this book was first assembled by the author in preparation for a series of lectures in 1943 on the unity and continuity of Indian culture. Later these first notes and additional data were brought together and published under the title Our Heritage. The present work was released under the direction of John Guy Fowlkes, advisory editor of Harper's Exploration Series in Education. A companion volume by the same writer, Education in New India, which is reviewed in the following pages, is recommended by this reviewer to be read after an examination of the subject of this review.

Three principal divisions of the study include: the era of Aryan development, the medieval period, and the modern trends and contributions. An outline approach in the introductory chapter provides a clear and brief statement on the role of major factors whose influences are still felt in Indian cultural life. A postscript summarizes the over-all revolutionary changes which are taking place in the present decades especially in intellectual leadership and initiative.

Of special interest to the American reader is the third and last section appropriately designated as the "modern ferment." Here are spelled out some of the deep-seated reasons and explanations behind the basic forces and ideas which challenged the very existence of Indian independence—and chief among these concepts were cultural impacts.

Christianity so influenced the people that today its extent is all out of proportion to the number of Christians in the country. The advent of Islam brought into its fold for the most part Hindu nobles and town-dwellers and yet the latter determined the tendency if not the tone of the whole of society. European contacts developed an intelligentsia which now separated in part from original moorings may redevelop its strength from the rural masses whose roots are firmly planted in the soil.

In a chapter headed "Renaissance and Revivalism," the author enumerates some of the great principles and facts which have become the hopes of the Indian peoples. The demand for social justice, the desire to learn more about the cultures of other nations, the decision to break with the past, the opportunity for man to control the forces of nature, the accelerated spread throughout the world of new technical and material facilities, the clash between the East and the West, the rise of international communism, and the general state of unrest; all these beliefs are rapidly transforming Indian thinking from dependence to independence.

The study should be of particular value to teachers and students in second-area programs, comparative anthropology and education, and Asian history and culture. Even visitors to India will find the work useful as an introduction to that nation's political and economic life.

The author is a distinguished educator who has served his government both at home and abroad in the field of education. He has taught at the Indian Universities of Calcutta and Andhra, was deputy leader of the Indian Delegation at the Third General Conference of UNESCO in 1948, was named vice-president of the Indian Council of Cultural Relations by the Government of India in 1953, and was secretary and educational advisor to India's Ministry of Education from 1952 to 1956. He was elected to the Parliament of India in 1956.

GEORGE F. DONOVAN

Department of Education The Catholic University of America EDUCATION IN New India by Humayun Kabir. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1956. Pp. x + 212. \$2.75.

This book is a brief evaluation of the educational changes which have taken place in India since Independence. Among the principal topics covered are: the theory and practice of basic education, the reconstruction of secondary education, social education, universities, the study of English, the role of the state in cultural activities, student life, and the place of education in independent India. An index facilitates a critical examination of the volume.

To the Western reader there are several chapters written with the purpose in mind of providing information on new or changing developments. One such approach is concerned with the English language. Despite reports to the contrary the author points out that the study of English in India is gaining ground. The gradual and expected interest in English among rural Indians to balance the present urban emphasis, the Indian recognition of the tongue as an international language, the traditional use of English in the development and preservation of the Indian cultural heritage, the new demands for the language in trade, industry, and government, scientific and technical uses of English, and the need to employ the language in contacts with the Western world including the United States, are some of the reasons advanced to support this belief.

The writer puts down suggestions which in his opinion will enhance the status of teaching in the new republic. He emphasizes: salary increases, removal of undue political influences in the appointment and retention of faculty members, national recognition of the teaching profession through public rewards, encouragement of exemplary teaching and guidance especially in faculty-student relations, promotion of effective teaching methods, study abroad, and the practice of some legislatures in asking for the advice of teachers' groups before taking action on measures before the law-making body.

Exploratory questions are raised on problems facing college and university students. Opportunities for work to defray part of their educational and living expenses are urged by Kabir who refers to the United States as "a shining example" in providing employment for deserving and needy students. The university degree as a prerequisite for a job must be greatly modified. There must be greater

student participation in the activities of the classroom. The writer is not sold on the current emphasis on the use of psychiatrists, psychologists, and other specialists, so prevalent in the United Kingdom and the United States. It is his contention that the teacher is in a position to offer adequate guidance to the student.

There is a very good commentary on the role of the state in cultural life. Co-operation with UNESCO, the Indian Council for Cultural Relations, educational exchange with the United States, United Kingdom, Russia, and other nations, the Indian Government-sponsored History of Philosophy Eastern and Western, the establishment of three national academies, an encyclopaedia in Hindi, and other state directed or aided projects, open up to the Western scholar for the first time organized studies under native leadership.

This work should be of special interest to students and teachers interested in learning more about present day cultural India. Fulbright advisors, U. S. Government exchange officials, and directors and teachers in Asian area studies, will find valuable information on the educational thinking and planning of modern India.

To the western scholar looking for documentation and additional extended readings occasional footnote citations and a selected reading list would be very much appreciated.

GEORGE F. DONOVAN

Department of Education
The Catholic University of America

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EDUCATING SPASTIC CHILDREN by F. Eleanor Schonell. New York: Philosophical Library, 1956. Pp. 242. \$6.00.

The author's purpose is "to assist those who help spastic children everywhere." The book expresses authoritatively Doctor Schonell's views on etiology, therapy, and education, based on her experience and observation in five English-speaking countries.

The term "spastic" is used to indicate the cerebral-palsied of any type, but the usual discrimination, description, and definition of athetosis, ataxia, spasticity, tremor, rigidity, and flaccidity are made. Cerebral palsy is defined as "motor disability in which the impairment or loss of muscular control is due to a lesion of the brain caused by injury to or faulty development of the growing brain tissue."

Briefly surveyed are the historical developments in the United States, Australia, and Great Britain—this with a certain understandable bias in favor of British accomplishments and institutions, especially Carlson House School for Spastics in Birmingham. This research project sponsored the University of Birmingham Survey, which is reported in this volume, and the first day school for cerebral palsied children in Great Britain. Statistics, which in the main agree with those current in the United States, are quoted on the number, types, intelligence, physical disability, personality, and adjustment of the cerebral-palsied, as well as on other areas of interest and exploration.

The entire book is by its nature of interest to those who participate in any way in the rehabilitation of the cerebral-palsied and in counseling the handicapped themselves or those associated with them. Psychological and social aspects such as the psychology of the cerebral-palsied child, habit formation, and parent counseling are treated scientifically and practically.

Of special interest to the general educator who may be faced with the problem of providing for the education of the "spastic" child in either special or common schools is the discussion of intelligence, relation between intelligence and physical handicap, reading abilities, speech, arithmetic, special methods, curricula, and special devices. In estimating the intelligence of the cerebral-palsied child the author used a "Tested I. Q.," a "Modified I. Q." (obtained by scoring as successes items which the psychologist, who was experienced in dealing with severely physically handicapped children, judged the child would have passed except for some special disability which prevented him from carrying out the instructions of the tester), and an "Estimated I. Q.," useable for educational placement purposes.

Possibly more could have been said of readiness for speech, of speech as basically important to the acquisition of other knowledge and personality development, and of systems of developing speech and language in the cerebral-palsied child. The co-operation of the speech therapist and other teachers is emphasized.

Parents, pastors, and other counselors will derive benefit from the pages on the cerebral-palsied child at home and the description of special helps that can be made or procured for controlling, strengthening, and training weak and uncontrollable muscles.

The book is written by an expert, is well illustrated and substantiated. It offers abundant statistical data and suggestions for further research, as well as valuable appendices and bibliographical material. It is recommended reading for anyone desiring either general or specialized information on educating the cerebral-palsied — the "spastic" child.

SISTER MARY CYPRIAN SPRADLING, Ad.PP.S.

Department of Speech and Drama The Catholic University of America

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THE PSYCHOLOGY OF HUMAN DIFFERENCES, 2d ed., by Leona E. Tyler. New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 1956. Pp. viii + 562. \$6.00.

This is a revision of a well-known volume. It was re-done to include much information that has accumulated since World War II. Its fundamental aim is still to chronicle all measurable aspects of man. Like most books with a psychometric viewpoint, it presents little sense of the person who has the traits. Unlike the earlier edition, this one is confined entirely to quantitative studies. The earlier sections on elementary statistics were also mostly eliminated to make room for other materials. On the other hand, there are good treatments on the interpretative aspect of advanced statistical methods.

The book is addressed to "intelligent upper-division or graduate students." Only a basic course in general psychology is presupposed, but the reviewer feels that more background would be necessary to keep a good theoretical perspective in the face of this thundering barrage of data.

There are four parts: (1) the field of differential psychology, (2) varieties of individual differences, (3) varieties of group differences, and (4) factors producing differences. Nowhere was any hint encountered as to the distinction between essential and acci-

dental differences. The author stated, however, that "all individuals may be considered to have equal value." (p. 5)

Another fact in keeping with Christian thought is that nearly all the data are gathered from experiments on human subjects; and there is very little of that precarious inductive leap from rat to man. It is likewise encouraging to encounter an early concurrence in those currents of contemporary thought in which the relative zero and uncertain units of mental measurement are stressed. But the matter gets only that passing nod. For instance, "As long as we keep it in mind, the rule that we must not divide one score by another . . . does not constitute a serious limitation on our work." (p. 33) Since later recommended procedures involve such ratio comparisons, though, one has to construe this to mean that it's all-right to treat scores as ratios, as long as you bear in mind that you really shouldn't.

The treatment of intelligence deserves special mention. The possibility of equating intelligence with the abstractive function is sympathetically considered (p. 106), and the G-factor is well noted, although Tyler is content, as was Spearman, to designate it as "total mental energy." Sex differences in learning are also considered carefully.

For its purposes, and within the framework of its limited viewpoint, this is a very good book. Its only "sins," from a Catholic standpoint, are of omission.

ROBERT B. NORDBERG

Department of Education
The Catholic University of America

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What Happens in Book Publishing, edited by Chandler B. Grannis. New York: Columbia University Press, 1957. Pp. x + 414. \$5.50.

Although the colonial simplicity of direct author-publisher relationship has long been shattered, yet few authors realize what goes on in modern publishing. In only one sense, that of close family ownership, does the old pattern persist. Otherwise publishing is big business, but still perhaps the publisher is the "closest remaining likeness of the free enterpriser of classical economy." (p. 235) Today the publisher who sits at ease waiting for a manuscript of non-fiction

is the exception; more likely his staff has planned the book and is searching for the author. Upon receipt of the manuscript that unknown (to the author) copy editor takes over not merely to insure unity of punctuation and capitalization but also to stop the author of vague memory from changing the name of a minor character from Bob in the opening part to Bill in the latter part of his novel. The sales force must be briefed on new titles; a percentage of the expected gross must go to advertising; review copies must be carefully allotted; the sale of subsidiary rights, serials, and so forth, must be exploited. The editor must be sure of the law of libel and of plagiarism; above all he must not run afoul of property rights in music. Design of the book, manufacturing, advertising, publicity, sales promotion, business management and other features are given full and most competent treatment. As Peter Jennison points out in his chapter on the "Distribution of American Books Abroad," "Expanding the availability in use of books abroad is an almost unparalleled example of the coincidence of public and private interests" today. (p. 274)

After discussing the major aspects of trade book publishing, including children's books, individual chapters are given to textbooks and to other special subject fields, such as religious, technical, scientific and medical books, university press publications and mass market production, such as paperbacks and book club selections. One wonders why medical and technical books should receive detailed treatment with law books omitted. The problems of authorship and production in the specialized fields are such that a mere passing mention might have sufficed.

This is an overdue, non-technical survey of the present American situation in book publishing, corresponding to Stanley Unwin's The Truth About Publishing, long a popular English title. The chapter on textbook publishing is particularly informative and shows how a textbook differs in function from a trade book and how the entire organization of a publisher has to be adjusted in order to fulfill that function. One major difference is always that in the royalties granted to the author. One begins to see the truth of the statement that, with the introduction of full color plates in textbooks, this phase of publishing "took on the character of horse racing with profit only for the winners." (p. 321)

It is indeed a pleasure to have had the opportunity of reviewing

this book and of recommending it wholeheartedly to all new authors and to most of the old ones for whom publishing is still an unprobed mystery.

EUGENE P. WILLGING

Director of the Library
The Catholic University of America

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## BOOKS RECEIVED

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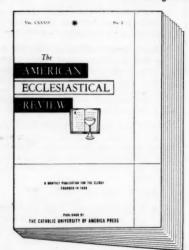
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